The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 14, 1892.

The Week.

SECRETARY BLAINE on Thursday sent notes to the diplomatic representatives of Austria-Hungary, Colombia, Hayti, Nicaragua, Honduras, Spain (for the Philippine Islands), and Venezuela, informing them that the President considered the duties imposed by their respective Governments on certain products of the United States "reciprocally unequal and unreasonable," in view of the admission by the United States, free of duty, of sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides; and that unless this reciprocal inequality and unreason was removed before the 15th of March next, the President would on that day issue his proclamation suspending the free introduction of sugar, molasses, coffee, tea, and hides, etc., from those countries, and imposing on them the duties prescribed by section 3 of the McKinley Bill. This section puts—under these circumstances—on all sugar below 13 Dutch standard in color, seven-tenths of one cent per pound; on all sugars above 13 and under 16 Dutch standard, one and three-eighths cents per pound; on all sugars above 16 and under 20, one and five-eighths cents per pound; on all sugars above 20, two cents per pound; on molasses, four cents a gallon; on coffee, three cents per pound; on tea, ten cents per pound; and on hides, one and a half cents per pound. It will be observed that these duties have to be paid by American consumers. They will be added to the price of sugar, tea, coffee, shoes and other leather goods. In other words, they will be fines inflicted on American citizens by Presidential proclamation, in order to punish certain citizens of foreign countries for "being reciprocally unjust and unreasonable." It would be hard to surpass this in absurdity. We do not believe it ever has been surpassed in absurdity. Its perpetration is made possible by the long habit, on which the whole protectionist system is built up, of regarding the products of human industry not as things to be consumed, but as things to sell, and the privilege of selling as far transcending in importance the privilege of eating, drinking, and wearing. This vicarious punishment inflicted on Americans for sins committed by foreigners, taken in connection with the gospel of dearness preached by the President and Messrs. Reed, Lodge, McKinley & Co. in the last year, makes a Republican political economy the most fatuous and interesting jumble of modern times.

We have no idea, however, that American consumers and manufacturers will submit to be punished by proclamation for offences committed by Venezuelans, Colombians, Haytians, Nicaraguans, Hondurans, and other "dagoes." The leather men of New England are not in the mood just now for allowing the Republican philosophers to play the fool at their expense. "There are judges in Berlin," as the Potsdam miller told Frederick, and the right of the President to lay taxes on his own countrymen in order to plague bad people in other countries is now being contested in the courts. The taxes deserve to be known as "Harrison's taxes." The President will be entitled to all the credit or shame of them, because the Act lays on his judgment alone, against all Constitutional precedent, the responsibility of imposing them. The very phrase which does this indicates the muddled state of mind of the drafters of the law. No man can be "reciprocally unequal and unreasonable" all by himself. The word "reciprocally" indicates that there is and must be another man who is exchanging inequality and unreason with him. Who is the reciprocating rascal in this case?

Judge-Advocate Remy is conducting an investigation into the Valparaiso outrage, at San Francisco, where the *Baltimore* now is. It is, of course, entirely *ex parte*. Nobody represents at it the Chilian authorities, police, or mob, and the Judge-Advocate conducts it alone. Its character may be judged of from the report of Medical Inspector Cook of the *Baltimore*, who, reporting on the case of Riggan, one of the crew, who was killed, after describing the wounds, says that one was inflicted by a rifle-ball, and that "the liberty party were assaulted in at least six different localities simultaneously," and "the work was apparently premeditated." A doctor who can make an induction of this kind from a post-mortem examination must be so clever a man that to leave him in the position of a navy surgeon is a crime against humanity. From a post-mortem examination of the other man who was killed, Coalheaver Turnbull, the same doctor reached the conclusion that "the attack was apparently premeditated, and inspired by hostility which a portion of the Chilian people entertain towards Americans." There is, however, in spite of these absurdities, nothing improper in the investigation, unless it is set up diplomatically as a reason for disregarding the findings of the Chilian court. There is some danger that something of this sort may be done. There is an evident disposition to treat the proceedings in the Chilian courts as worthy of respect if they are in accordance with, but farcical if they differ from, the evidence given here by the crew of the *Baltimore*. We have nothing from Chili as yet but the result of the secret preliminary investigation, equivalent to our investigation by the Grand Jury, and the presentation of indictments by the Public Prosecutor. The case has still to be tried by the "Judge of Crimes." If he finds that the assault was an unprovoked one, was made in three different directions by a large mob headed by Chilian police and soldiers, all will be well. But we fear if he finds that the police and soldiers did not head it, and that nobody was guilty except those who were indicted, there will be great reluctance at Washington to accept the decision as final, even if accompanied with an apology.

There is said to be a violent difference between the President and Mr. Blaine on this subject, Mr. Blaine inclining to peace and moderation, and the President longing to use the Army and Navy, and being very indifferent to the contrast between the Chilian proceedings in this matter and ours in the New Orleans massacre. If the President continues warlike, too, he is likely to get the support of the whole Republican press; the interest of the party in getting plenty of money to spend on the Navy during the next nine months being very strong, and the naval officers being very eager to try their new ships, and the issue of the war being certain. Then there is nothing like a war for increasing "sales" and making a market for sensations. Moreover, a vigorous effort is now being made to get England into the affair by showing that England is interested in exciting Chilian hostility to us, and that if we conquered Chili, we should root out British commerce in that quarter, and sell a great deal to the Chilians and buy nothing. The continued absence of any recognition of any principles of international law or morality applicable to the affair continues. Nobody would suspect from reading the newspapers that there was any rule governing the intercourse of nations except force, or that there was any way of deciding international disputes, except the submission of the little nation to the big one, after a count of guns and ships. We seem to be as free, judging from our press, in the use of our strength as Barbary pirates or Buccaneers. There was a paragraph in Sunday's *Tribune* ridiculing "the namby-pamby patriots" who "are disturbed by Washington despatches in relation to naval preparations," and whose "pusillanimity on foreign policy" is immeasurable, which might have been written by an Algerine corsair to somebody trying to dissuade him from going on a cruise. "The type," says this silly but ferocious marine ruffian,

> "of a naval cruiser which would suit them is a toy model to be launched in a private bath-tub; and if there were a tiny American flag at the masthead they would take the precaution of locking the bath-room door and pulling down the window shades."

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The House of Representatives rejected by a decisive majority the resolution of the Senate appropriating $100,000 to pay the cost of freight on contributions of food to the famine-stricken people of Russia. With every desire to help those poor people and other poor people in Japan, Mexico, and elsewhere, we still think that the House has acted rightly, both from the constitutional and the economical point of view. Congress is not in the habit of appropriating money for the relief of even our own people, and, although a resolution like that which passed the Senate is not unprecedented, yet it is more honored in the breach than in the observance. Mr. John De Witt Warner hit the nail on the head when he said that the best way to relieve the poor people in Russia was to sell the food contributions here and cable the money to Russia. That is a practical, prompt, and effective way to help the needy. Loading ships and sending them across the Atlantic, through the Mediterranean, the Bosphorus, and the Black Sea, makes a spectacle indeed, and may possibly incite other people to follow the example of the donors, but it may well be doubted whether the dollar so contributed will go as far as a dollar in money put into the hands of Count Tolstoi, for example. There is no lack of food in Russia. In fact, there is an excess in certain parts and a deficiency in others. What is wanted is money to buy the excess and distribute it to those who have none.

Congressman Dockery was well within the facts last week when he said in the House that it was clear from Secretary Foster's reports that $65,000,000 of the appropriations for the last fiscal year and the first half of this had gone unpaid. Indeed, he might have put the case much more strongly. In the six months ending December 31 the Treasury expenditures were $86,000,000 less than the amount called for by existing laws—$176,018,751, against appropriations at the rate of $262,500,000 in the half year. It ill becomes the party which has brought the Treasury into such straits to make fun of even the pettiest economy practised by a Democratic House. Whatever the affluent Republican editors may say, Secretary Foster will welcome every dollar that can be saved for him. The revenue from customs runs on at disappointingly low figures, having amounted to $85,722,000 in the past six months, as compared with $124,240,000 in the same part of 1890. At this rate, Mr. Foster's estimate for the entire fiscal year will turn out $14,000,000 too great. This would make a pretty big hole in his estimated surplus of $24,000,000, even if that were not figured out on the absurd basis of expenses put at no more than $409,000,000; in the *Tribune* itself he might have learned that the appropriations for the current fiscal year are $116,000,000 greater than that sum.

Senator Morgan of Alabama brought the Nicaragua Canal forward as an object of national concern last week by a resolution directing the Committee on Foreign Relations to make an investigation into its present condition and prospects, financial and other. The Committee is also to consider and report what in its opinion the interests of the United States may require in respect of said canal. Probably the Committee will report in favor of the bill that was before the Senate last year, or with some amendment giving a larger bonus to the present shareholders; but it is not at all likely that such a bill will pass Congress at this session. There is too much money in it. Certainly, the Democrats had best be wary how they vote the credit of the United States, to the extent of $100,000,000, into the hands of their political opponents just before a Presidential election. There is much to be said in favor of the Nicaragua Canal and in favor of the Government's control over it, but it will not "get away" in the course of the next nine or ten months, and the intervening time may be profitably spent in investigation.

Since Senator Teller has taken the initiative in moving for a new international monetary conference, we may assume that the resolution he has offered, or something equivalent to it, will pass both houses of Congress. Mr. Teller is the head and front of the Republican silver faction. He is in general agreement, on the money question, with Mr. Bland, who is the head and front of the Democratic silver faction. They represent sufficient strength in both Senate and House to pass the resolution, and it is not likely that they will meet with any resistance except possibly among Republicans like Senator Sherman, who would like to keep the silver debate hot during the Presidential campaign. The first thought that occurs to a careful observer of the silver craze in its different stages is that the call for international action comes now from the free coinage men, whereas heretofore they either have been opposed to it or have sneered at it. Their maxim hitherto has been the famous one of Stanley Matthews: "What have we to do with Abroad?" They have looked upon international conferences as dodges to gain time. They have also considered our assent and participation in such conferences as a kind of sanction of the idea that free coinage by separate action would be unwise if not futile. An international conference, moreover, always implies an international ratio, which must be fixed by a majority vote, and may not happen to be our ratio of 16 to 1. But if our ratio were not agreeable to the majority, what would become of the "dollar of the fathers"? Who would be able after that to denounce the rascals who stealthily and secretly deprived us of this revered coin in 1873?

President Harrison's nomination of Judge Lindsay of Kentucky as one of the Inter-State Commerce Commission is remarkable for the fact that the announcement was a surprise to the appointee, inasmuch as he had been in no sense an applicant for the office. His admirable fitness for the place is conceded by both parties, so that it was really a case where the office sought the man. This is coming to be a rare thing in our politics. Witness the recent scramble of a dozen Kansas politicians for the Senate seat left vacant by Mr. Plumb's death, and the necessity laid upon Mr. Sherman of going to Columbus, opening "headquarters," and working for himself with all his might, in order to secure a reëlection to the Senate. Judge Lindsay must be a dreadfully "old-fashioned" sort of a man.

Mr. Cleveland's speech to the Business Men's Democratic Club on Friday night was chiefly remarkable for his vigorous denunciation of "shifty schemes," "insincere professions," "political manœuvring," "political riddles," "conundrums," and "doubtful phrases." He reminded all those who are expecting to win the next Presidential election by the art of intrigue and feats of hermeneutics, that however enjoyable and successful these processes may be in the little circles which carry them on, the day comes when the party must "meet face to face the voters of the land," and these voters demand "a plain and simple statement of political purpose." In other words, no man can be juggled into the Presidential chair, except in the way in which the Republicans won it in 1876—a performance which the Democrats cannot hope to repeat. Any Democrat who wins this year must rely on his principles, and must be able to state these principles in language which the plain people can understand. How splendidly the Republicans, for instance, got along among themselves in the House with their explanation of the way the McKinley Bill was going to benefit the country by making all the dear things cheap, and all the cheap things dear, and by putting the blessing of dearness within every poor man's reach; but what rags and tatters were made of their theories when the tricksters who compounded them came face to face with the voters at the polls. What a different person, for instance, ex-Speaker Reed appeared to the human eye on the 5th of November, 1890, from what he appeared on the 4th of November in the same year. What a different aspect all his little dodges, quips, and quirks wore. Into what thin air Lodge's dialectics were dissolved. We trust our Democratic metaphysicians will ponder this, and be wise in time.

Mr. Springer gave the Club the very comforting assurance that we shall have no free-coinage bill from this Congress, nor any silver bill which all parts of the country will not be willing to accept; which is the same as saying that we shall

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have no silver bill at all. He was equally emphatic and equally comforting in assuring us that no attempt will be made to pass a new tariff bill. Any party which now attempts a complete revision of the tariff is doomed to, defeat. Both Democrats and Republicans have made the experiment, and we know with what result. The monstrosities of the McKinley Bill must be attacked in detail, one monstrosity at a time. In this way the country will have the benefit of comparing the respective merits of cheapness and dearness on a small scale. If, for instance, the removal of the wool and clothing duties should cheapen coats, trousers, and blankets to the masses, each man would be able to ascertain by observation of himself, his children, and his neighbors, whether cheap clothing has, as President Harrison and McKinley have alleged, a deteriorating effect on the character of the wearer. If the general experience showed that cheap clothing was really injurious to morals, the restoration of the duties would be easy, and would create no serious industrial disturbance.

When the Democrats got control of the Ohio Legislature, they gerrymandered the State so flagrantly that they secured 14 of the 21 Congressmen at the next election. Now that the Republicans are again in power, some of them want to give the Democrats a dose of their own medicine, and a scheme has been brought forward which would redistrict the State so as to give the Republicans 17 of the 21. But Gov. McKinley has signalized his accession by an earnest protest against such injustice. He characterizes in proper terms the abuse of power committed by the Democrats, but he warns his own party against passing any sort of a measure except one that is fair all around. He says: "Make the districts so fair in their relation to the political divisions of our people that they will stand until a new census shall be taken. Make them so impartial that no future Legislature will dare disturb them until a new census and a new Congressional apportionment will make a change imperative. The districts should be made so as to give the party majority in the State a majority of Representatives, and so arranged that, if the party majority shall change, the Representative majority shall also change." This is the kind of talk that is needed to put a stop to the abuse. It does no good to "arraign" the other party for a gerrymander, and then seize the first opportunity that offers to make a worse one.

The Brazilian despatch the other day, announcing the discontinuance of the existing requirement of consular certification to invoices of imported goods, attracted little attention, although it is really a highly significant step. Under the reciprocity agreement with this country, care had to be taken, of course, that goods nominally coming from the United States and claiming lower rates of duty should have a proper consular guarantee; and, in fact, a plan for securing it was made a part of the agreement. Then it occurred to Fonseca that it would be only fair to extend the same plan of consular certification to imports from all countries, and accordingly he issued a decree on November 21, only a few days before the collapse of his Dictatorship, putting in force for Brazil a very close copy of the McKinley Administrative Bill. The dissatisfaction it caused among merchants engaged in the foreign trade was great, and found general expression as soon as mouths were unmuzzled by Fonseca's fall, and it was not long before the new Government listened to the complaints and rescinded the objectionable measure. Of course the old conditions remain for exports from our country, but with other nations Brazil has declared that she wishes to trade without vexing administrative hindrances.

The "Chadourne incident," which M. Ribot has brought on himself by resenting the expulsion of a French newspaper correspondent from Bulgaria, has reached a stage which makes the French Government a little ridiculous. The French expel newspaper correspondents themselves, as do all the European Powers except England. They have expelled an English correspondent, who was also a member of Parliament, named Cunningham, within a year; so they could not complain of the expulsion of Chadourne on its merits. The point they made was that, Bulgaria being a vassal of the Porte, French citizens living on her soil were covered by the capitulations just as if they lived in Constantinople. Accordingly, when Bulgaria refused any satisfaction, they appealed to the Sultan to discipline the vassal, but the Sultan has grown very wary about meddling in Christian rows. He was not going to offend Germany and Russia by obliging France. Russia, too, showed little interest in the matter, and England and Germany were openly vexed at what seemed a disturbance of the peace. So there was nothing left for M. Ribot but to "break off diplomatic intercourse" with the vassal. This has been done, but nobody seems to care, and least of all the Bulgarians. The moral seems to be that it is very foolish, as the world is now constituted, for any one who has dignity to look after, to make a great fuss over a wrong for which he knows of no remedy.

General Lesczynski, who was a year ago commander of the Ninth German Army Corps, publishes, in the January number of the *Deutsche Rundschau*, an article on the military situation in Germany, which the *Mémorial Diplomatique* summarizes in its last issue from advance sheets. The writer, of course, speaks with an authority which his national prepossessions do not seriously lessen. He puts the German Army at the head of the military forces of Europe, owing to its uniformity of training, to the personal character of the officers, and the facilities for filling their places after losses in war afforded by the existence of a highly educated middle class such as no other country possesses. The importance of this last consideration may be estimated from the fact that in the Franco-German war of 1870, which lasted only nine months, the Germans lost over 6,000 officers, which Count von Moltke in his history of the war pronounced irremediable. It was doubtless irremediable as regarded the immediate supply of officers as good as those who had fallen; but the high order of instruction which all classes of Germans receive, and the military spirit with which the whole population is now imbued, would make such a loss far less serious in Germany than in any other European country.

Gen. Lesczynski ridicules the fears excited by the much-talked-of concentration of Russian troops on the German frontier. He says this concentration is a source of danger to Russia rather than to Germany. These troops could not take the field without calling up the reserves, and the difficulty of transporting the reserves to those distant points would be very great, and they would have to pass over long lines of railroad, which would greatly tempt and be very accessible to the German cavalry. As to the French Army, he acknowledges its present excellence in strength and armament and discipline, but says the German organization is more solid, and he counts on a revolution in Paris after any reverse in the field. He eulogizes the Austrian Army, and that of Rumania, but, curiously enough, speaks slightingly of that of Italy, the main use of which, he intimates, would be the detaining of a large French force from the seat of war on the Rhine and on the Polish frontier, where the real contest would be fought out. This, coming from such a source, is cold comfort for the Italians, who have made so many sacrifices for the Triple Alliance. But nothing but a victory over a European force will ever give the Italians a good military reputation after Lissa and Custozza. Both battles, one on sea and one on land, were lost through bad generalship. The defeat at Custozza, where the Italians took the field alone against an Austrian force for the first time after Novara, was particularly provoking, for the behavior of the troops was excellent. But they had to debouch from the hills on a plain, in the presence of the enemy, who swept away the heads of the columns with his splendid cavalry as fast as they showed themselves, and the battle was lost before more than half the Italian force could get into action.

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THE DEMOCRATIC HOUSE AND WAR WITH CHILI.

THERE are grave issues pending between the Government at Washington and Chili. That we all know. But neither Congress nor the country can accurately know the cause, occasion, character, and responsibility till all that has been done and said by officials on both sides has been published by one or the other house of Congress, and until the appropriate committee of one or the other house has investigated and reported. The efforts industriously made to promote a "snap judgment" by either Congress or the country, and before the facts have been thus officially placed before the people, are not quite commendable. An illustration is to be seen in the following, found in the Washington correspondence of the *Herald:*

"So conservative a man as Mr. McCreary of Kentucky, a legislator of long experience, who has served for years on the House Foreign Affairs Committee, and who was the Chairman of the Committee in the Fiftieth Congress, said to me to-day: 'The war spirit is very general throughout the country. It is not confined to the young men who have come upon the scene since 1861. I find it quite as prevalent among the soldiers of the North and South who served in the Union and Confederate armies. A million of these men would respond to a call to arms. There would be no trouble about the number of men. The only embarrassment would be whom to select.'"

We all know Mr. McCreary. He has frequently appeared in interviews tending to uphold the plans and contentions of Secretary Blaine. He has been for many years a member of the Foreign Affairs Committee of the House, but was never Chairman excepting during a few weeks after Mr. Belmont became Minister at Madrid. He was not made Chairman by Speaker Crisp, but Mr. Blount, a sound, careful lawyer and experienced member of the Committee, was placed at its head. If one asks himself what Mr. McCreary, a Kentuckian, can, while sitting in Washington, know of the feelings concerning a war with Chili entertained by Northern soldiers who were in the civil war nearly thirty years ago, he will come to a pretty clear perception of the motive and value of Mr. McCreary's opinion, and the propriety of expressing it before he has, as Committeeman, heard or read what the Chilian facts are.

Every cautious and fairly intelligent man will now try to keep it clearly in mind that the present issue between the United States and Chili is complicated by Secretary Blaine's doings, just ten years ago, in the war between Chili and Peru, and by his fad in 1889 that the Irish vote could be won for himself and the Republican party by sending Egan to Chili, under circumstances most irritating to England and to her friends in Chili, whether in or out of diplomacy. Secretary Blaine must be judged in the present complication somewhat by his previous conduct in the State Department, at least until the facts are all spread out and Congress has made all needed inquiry. What did he do in the Chilian-Peruvian war, even after Arthur became President?

One of the questions of December, 1881, was this: Why did Chili suppress the Calderon Government, which the United States had recognized? In order to ascertain, Secretary Blaine sent a special mission to Chili, consisting of Mr. Trescot and Mr. Walker Blaine, and instructed them, on December 1, 1881, to suspend diplomatic intercourse with Chili if she avowed her motive to have been "in consequence of the recognition by the United States." The instructions to Trescot were aptly framed to authorize him to decide in regard to the motives and explanations put forth by Chili, and so to pass on the question of breaking off diplomatic relations between Washington and Santiago. Neither Congress nor the country knew in 1881 of those instructions to Trescot. President Arthur was hoodwinked and did not correctly appreciate their significance.

In the middle of December of 1881, Mr. Blaine retired from the State Department to make room for Mr. Frelinghuysen and Mr. Bancroft Davis. The doings of Mr. Blaine could after that be thoroughly investigated, and it was discovered that Mr. Trescot had gone to Chili with power to bring on a situation calculated and intended to lead to a war between the United States and Chili, and to put our Congress in a condition wherein it must declare or accept war. During the Christmas holidays of 1881, very early and very late work, by day and by night, was done in the State Department by Mr. Blaine's successor, with the result that immediately after New Year's of 1882 President Arthur was by Secretary Frelinghuysen and Senator Edmunds confronted with the fact that, by the authority given to Mr. Trescot, war with Chili was in sight unless Chili explained the Calderon episode and made promises concerning the Cochet and the Landreau claims satisfactory to Mr. Trescot under the note to him from Mr. Blaine of December 16, 1881. When President Arthur appreciated the situation, he ordered that a cable be sent to Mr. Trescot countermanding, in effect, the Blaine instructions of December 1 and 16, which cable was sent on January 3, 1882. Trescot was told that the Calderon incident could be treated in Washington, which was done by an explicit declaration, promptly made by the Chilian Minister at Washington, that the arrest of Calderon was not intended as an affront to the United States.

It was probably the eviction of Mr. Blaine from the State Department in 1881 that kept off a war scare then, and possibly actual war, which might have swept England in. One plainly discerns in the Chili-Peru episode of ten years ago that Mr. Blaine and Mr. Trescot (now in control of the State Department as in 1881) will bear watching, even although ten years more of age may have chastened both somewhat.

Of course a great deal depends not merely on the official instructions given to Egan, but on the temper which he is *privately* told to display in Chili. Egan can, if so ordered, easily nag Chilians into saying very nasty things of us. The official notes will, when laid before Congress, be necessarily tinged by the intentions of Blaine and Egan, whether to create and keep alive a muss or throw a wet blanket over explosive incidents. It is the business and duty of the House Foreign Affairs Committee and the Democratic House to explore carefully the conduct of Blaine, Tracy, and Egan in dealing with Chili, and tell the country what they find. Obviously, what the Republican leaders are seeking is to make, through Chili, a cuttle-fish emission whereby the doings of the Billion Congress can be obscured. Ten years ago Mr. Blaine's magnetic diplomacy in Chili was arrested by the peremptory interposition of President Arthur. The Democratic House can render a like invaluable service now.

THE CONNECTICUT DECISION.

IT will simplify the many complexities of the Connecticut contest just ended in the courts if we remember that the constitutional questions have focussed almost entirely on the single point of the power of the State Legislature to investigate and change the election returns made by the town moderators to the Secretary of State. The Democrats have contended that under the Constitution of the State the returns of the moderators — barring fraud — were final, that the election ended with their certification of the November vote, and that the legislative function was clerical and arithmetical. The Republican plea, on the other hand, has been that when the State Constitution says that the General Assembly shall, "after examination, declare the person whom they shall find to be legally chosen," it means also an inquisitive and judicial process as to the returns, and that the final declaration forms an integral and essential part of the Governor's title. This divergence of constitutional interpretation has marked the wide and deep line of cleavage between the two parties ever since the bitter and scandalous contest began one year ago. The briefs of the counsel for Morris and Bulkeley and the hopes of the people of Connecticut have centred upon a settlement of this fiercely disputed point.

The unanimous decision of the Supreme Court—which we are bound to hold good Connecticut law—does answer this question, but it answers in terms more abstract than practical in their results. It asserts that the Legislature has the inquisitive power, but that its exercise must be limited to the first and second days of the legislative session. It follows, with the present defect in the State laws relating to elections, that the moderators' returns from some 200 Connecticut voting-places must be "examined," questions of law and of fact decided, and the result "declared," all within the brief compass of two days. To do such a thing fully and fairly in so short a time is obviously often physically and morally impossible for a legislative body;

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so that the court asserts as a legislative power under the Connecticut Constitution a thing which other words of the Constitution nullify in practice. The remedy under the court's finding is such a set of election statutes as will test the law and the facts in the interval of two months between the election and the Legislature's meeting. But even then, as the sub-findings must be reviewed by the Legislature before it makes the "declaration," and as the declaration is held by the court to be essential to a Governor's title, there seems to be unlimited scope for disputes of the two houses. It manifestly puts it in the power of either house refusing to "declare," to force, for a time at least, a hold-over set of State officers, precisely as the Republican House has done this year. In such a plight does the antique Connecticut Constitution, as interpreted by the highest and final tribunal of a New England commonwealth, leave the State.

The case of Bulkeley is one directly to the point. The court holds, or at least strongly implies, that the Republican House, in the absence of sufficient statutes bearing on the election returns, ought to have accepted them on their face and "declared" Morris elected. But it did not do so, and it let the second day of the session go by without a declaration. Hence the court holds that the Legislature has lost all purview of the case. It is, as we may say, *functus officio* so far as the State offices are concerned. It follows, and the court so declares, that Bulkeley is not only Governor *de facto*—which has been generally conceded—but Governor *de jure* also, which hardly anybody has believed either in Connecticut or outside of it. Such is the extreme to which the "two-day limitation" of the State Constitution compels the court, and it is undoubtedly good Connecticut ruling. It may be added, by the way, that it seems to leave in a curious position Comptroller Staub, who was not "declared" by the Connecticut House until some five weeks later than the first day of the session, and thus falls far outside of the two-day limit. How the Republican policy has also overreached itself and "killed" Merwin is obvious.

Coming to broader principles of the case, the court, quoting the legal maxim of a remedy for every wrong, concedes the evils of the present situation in Connecticut, and intimates that Judge Morris has such a remedy in establishing title by proceedings begun before the Superior Court of the State. Here again we find one of those not uncommon examples where sound law conflicts with facts and the utilities. The Superior Court of Connecticut is an inferior tribunal of general jurisdiction in each county. It takes about two years, or the whole term of a Governor, for an unimpeded case to pass through it to a Supreme Court decision—longer, if one side resorts to tactics of delay. Moreover, the Connecticut Supreme Court has held, over and over again, with the greatest emphasis, that its own jurisdiction relates only to points of law, thus leaving the inferior court in the assumed case to try questions of fact coming to it from perhaps two hundred voting-places in the State. The inadequacy in practice of such a lower tribunal to pass upon a vast array of questions in a suit involving title to the highest State offices is seen in the mere statement, and adds its testimony to the abstract and technical quality of last week's decision.

But at one point the decision is exceedingly clear. It establishes firmly Gov. Bulkeley's title, and demands from good citizens of the State recognition of the fact. Gov. Bulkeley has plotted to hold over in his office; he has wrought grievous shame to the good name of the State; he has vulgarized his office; he is the first violator of the secret-ballot law of the State, and he has united the unscrupulousness of a Hill with the audacity of Ben Butler. Still, he is Connecticut's Governor. The duty of the Democrats is clear and imperative. They should bow to the unanimous decision of the court, and their Senate should proceed straightway with legislative business. If rascality is for the time triumphant over them, and if their moss-grown Constitution has come to satirize republican government, the remedy is at the polls, and at the polls only. In the larger and wiser view of political events, it is from just such strict constructions of a bad Constitution as the Connecticut court has given, that the popular impulse to change the organic law is derived. Certainly, the disgraceful episodes of the last year in Connecticut have advanced that change by years.

OHIO'S REPUBLICAN TAMMANY.

THE victory of John Sherman in the caucus of Republican legislators at Columbus last week is a matter for national congratulation. Mr. Sherman is the most eminent man in public life to-day, and, despite all his faults and weaknesses, comes nearer than any one else now left to the measure of a statesman. Though he will be almost seventy when his present term ends in 1893, he is still in vigorous physical condition, and gives promise of being able to render as efficient service during his next term as at any previous time during a public career which has already kept him continuously in office at Washington—as Representative, Senator, Secretary of the Treasury, and then Senator again—for nearly forty years. It would have been nothing short of a national misfortune if the Republicans of Ohio had failed to return him to the Senate, in favor of one of the most notorious blatherskites in American politics.

But the most significant feature of this contest at Columbus is not the fact that Senator Sherman won: it is the narrowness of his escape from defeat. In caucus, to be sure, he secured 53 votes to ex-Gov. Foraker's 38, but the issue was really decided when the Sherman candidate for Speaker beat Foraker's man by only four votes. The members who had been waiting to see which side would win thereupon went over to Sherman, but if the Foraker candidate for Speaker had received three votes more than he got, and the Sherman man three less, Foraker would in all probability have carried the Senatorial caucus. So narrow was the escape from defeat in a Republican legislative caucus of the most eminent Republican in the State, whose return to the Senate was desired by the great majority of his party and advocated by three-fourths or four-fifths of the Republican newspapers.

How did Sherman come so near to failure and Foraker so near to success? The question is fully answered in a remarkable review of the Senatorial controversy which has just been published by Gen. H. V. Boynton, the veteran Washington correspondent, whose sturdy Republicanism, high personal character, and intimate knowledge of Ohio politics entitle him to speak with authority. The explanation is found in the existence of "a Republican Tammany organization in Hamilton County [Cincinnati]," which Gen. Boynton characterizes as "of a lower order of political morality and worse than any similar organization in either party anywhere else in the United States." "The boss of this Cincinnati Tammany," he says, "is George Cox, an illiterate saloon-keeper of one of the most notorious dives in the most notorious part of the city, known as 'Dead Man's Corner' because of the many murders committed in and about it. It has had a gambling-house attachment and a department devoted to even viler uses." It was while running this saloon that Cox entered politics, and he soon became a power in city affairs. A fellow-feeling drew Cox and Foraker together when the latter came to the front in State politics ten years ago, and they have been hand-and-glove ever since. When Foraker became Governor, he appointed Cox to the lucrative sinecure of coal-oil inspector, and the saloon-keeper went through the form, so familiar in this city, of nominally putting the establishment out of his own hands and into the hands of his former barkeeper. It is this man Cox who was "the acknowledged leader of the Foraker forces, and without his countenance the Governor would have had no chance of success." The second in command in this Republican Tammany is a confidence-man, who deals in bogus remedies for the cure of consumption—a person who has no standing among Cincinnati physicians, and who advertises only at a distance, manufacturing his worthless stuff by the barrel for sixteen cents a quart, and selling it to gullible invalids all over the country at five dollars a quart. He, too, early became a favorite of Foraker's, and was appointed to office by the Governor.

So absolute has become Cox's control that Gen. Boynton declares it to be "now impossible for any aspirant to be nominated by the County Republican Conven-

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tion in the city unless he first seeks out the local boss and pays him spot cash"—save where it happens that he deems it discreet to allow a few representatives of decent politics to go on the ticket to allay the suspicions of the body of honest voters. The way in which Cox "set up the pins" for his pal Foraker is thus described:

"In the last campaign the candidates as a body, from those aspiring to the Legislature to those seeking judicial nominations, were obliged to visit this boss at his headquarters and pay in advance. The sums ranged from $200 up to $2,000. As an example, the cash price paid for nomination as Sheriff was $2,000, and immediately after the election the boss coolly demanded that he be allowed to name sixteen out of the twenty-one appointments in the Sheriff's office. Every man on the Hamilton County Republican Legislative ticket, without an exception, was selected in advance by this boss, George Cox. Doubtless this will seem amazing, but it is true, without a qualification."

This is the way it was done: Shortly before the convention, Cox called on the Postmaster and Collector (both Sherman men) with a list of five names as his personal choice for the Legislative ticket, and asked them to select eight from another list of sixteen, all of whom were represented by him, and believed by the Postmaster and Collector, to be for Sherman, this concession being due to the unquestioned fact that the Republicans of the city were overwhelmingly for Sherman and against Foraker. Eight names were accordingly selected from the sixteen, but the thing turned out to be a confidence game on Cox's part. "Every man of the sixteen, as is now known, had made his pecuniary and political peace with Cox, and the latter had taken a pledge from each one in advance that, in case of nomination and election, he would do such a favor for Cox as the latter might name. So strong was this pledge that those who knew of it among Cox's press supporters made bold to announce, in double leads, the morning after the election, and before a man of those elected had been consulted, that the Hamilton County delegation was solid for Foraker for Senator, to succeed John Sherman." The announcement was universally denounced as false, but was speedily found to be true. "This capture through false pretences and a confidence game," says Gen. Boynton, "made it possible for Gov. Foraker to open a public campaign to oust Mr. Sherman from the Senate. Without this solid delegation of one more than one-quarter of the Republican vote in the Legislature necessary to a caucus nomination, there would have been no possible chance of success."

Such is politics to-day in one of our chief cities and in one of the largest States of the Union: an illiterate saloon-keeper absolutely controls the municipality, and almost succeeds in controlling the Legislature, in order to turn out from the United States Senate its most eminent member! Unhappily it is not a unique case. Many another large city can match it in its chief features, and many a smaller one as far as circumstances allow imitation. Cox is a Republican in Cincinnati, but he would be a Democrat in New York, and he would be here as loyal a supporter of "Dave" Hill and as bitter an opponent of Grover Cleveland as in Ohio he is the backer of Foraker and the "knifer" of Sherman. The significance of Cox is as a type of the men who are to-day the most powerful class in the government of this country—the bosses of our great cities.

CHEATS AND CHEATING.

THE history of the Republican party since 1874 is probably the most solemn warning ever given to the world against the policy of trying to keep power by employing cheats to cheat. The party was never so strong as when it elected Grant in 1868 and reëlected him in 1872, but it lost control of Congress in 1874 simply because, vivid as were still the memories of the war, voters saw, or thought they saw, that the Administration was surrounded and controlled by cheats. It suffered a still deadlier blow in 1876, when "the gentleman" from the *Times* office got Mr. Chandler to telegraph to the Louisiana Returning Board to prepare to cheat, and it never recovered at all from the cheat by which Mr. Hayes obtained the Presidency. On the day he was inaugurated, in spite of the convenient disguise afforded by the Electoral Commission, the whole country felt that something was gone from the party which could never come back, and that thing was character. The popular belief in its sincerity and simplicity and high aims and unselfish purposes, which had during the previous sixteen years clothed it with almost arbitrary power, died on that day. It was able to elect Garfield in 1880, by becoming a tariff party and promising to make plenty of money for everybody who voted for it; but it was never again able to promise to make Americans proud of their country by standing for purity and justice. In 1884 it lost the Presidency for the first time by going one step further and nominating a man who, rightly or wrongly, was suspected not only of having the support of cheats, but of being a cheat himself. It got back the Presidency in 1888, as almost everybody now admits, by venality on an enormous scale, under the leadership of a man accused not only of buying votes, but of robbing the Treasury of his own State; and it used its slender majority in Congress to accomplish so much cheating and bullying that in 1890 it was almost swept out of the House by a torrent of popular indignation.

Is it possible to mistake the meaning of all this? Is there in all history a plainer political lesson? Does it not show, as many another such lesson has shown, that ill-gotten power cannot be permanent? Power may be acquired by theft, or fraud, or murder, but it can be kept only by honest arts. The "Something not ourselves which makes for righteousness," is, in politics as in business, always on the track of the villain, and sees to it that peace shall not come to him. For even dishonest communities expect their rulers to be honest, just as even dishonest jurors are ready to punish theft and fraud.

Is there, therefore, anything more astonishing in politics than the present attitude of a portion of the Democratic party in this State? They have just seen a party which had a thousand claims on popular attachment and confidence such as the Democrats cannot pretend to — which is associated permanently with the heroic period of American history—cast out of power, utterly discredited, for persistent lying and cheating, for employing knaves to acquire by force or fraud things which did not belong to it, and for elevating, or trying to elevate, to places of dignity and authority men whose word could not be relied on, and who owed both fame and fortune to ways which they would be ashamed to acknowledge. Nevertheless, these Democrats are now, in the Presidential year, with Republican sins fresh in the popular mind, with the leading Republican rogues paraded, as it were, for their inspection with placards on their breasts describing their offences, actually entering, with great glee, on a campaign of similar frauds, and putting laurels on the brow of the man who concocted and carried them out.

They know very well how closely the country is divided between the two parties, how small a thing may turn the scale next fall. They know that the Republicans are sure of 183 votes in the Electoral College, the Democrats of only 176; that there are five doubtful States; that the Republicans can win with Indiana, Iowa, and Massachusetts, and do without New York; that the Democrats cannot win with New York alone; that even if they carry New York, they must carry also Indiana; that if they do not carry New York, they must carry Indiana, Iowa, Connecticut, and Massachusetts. They know that the public conscience is not dead in any of these States; that their majority in them is at best very small, and that there is in none of them a Tammany Society. They know that it is difficult or impossible to make a sorry rogue like Hill, without eloquence, without "magnetism," without social or political credit, specially attractive even to knaves, unless they have directly profited by his frauds; that outside this State he must be odious to tens of thousands who still cling to the old political morality, and "believe that righteousness exalteth a nation," and who have a patriotic care for the character of public men. They know that they will not have a vote to spare in any State. And yet they are tumbling over each other in their eagerness to do honor to this poor trickster, as if he were the inventor of a new patent process for seizing the Presidency or the Legislature; as if his secret were not known in all

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the jails in the country by tens of thousands of less fortunate practitioners. They remind one forcibly of Macaulay's story of that unfortunate Brahmin who bought a mangy sheep for sacrifice, refused to believe the friends who pointed out to him the animal's unsoundness, and insisted on offering the beast to the gods, who promptly smote him with disease in all his joints.

UNIFORM RAILWAY CLASSIFICATION.

THE railways of the United States have been forced by similarity of geographical and traffic conditions to divide themselves into groups, each group having, among other things, a classification of freight peculiar to itself. There can be no question that these group classifications hinder the free exchange of articles by reason of the differing rules and rates in cases of shipments which must cross the imaginary group boundary. There is no commercial reason why an Eastern manufacturer should not sell his product in Kansas; but if, in order to do so, he begins a calculation to see whether the selling price there will allow a profit, he finds that the arbitrary change in the railway classification, say at Chicago, leaves the actual transportation charge through to Kansas in doubt to such a degree as to be a real hindrance to the freedom of trade. Under these conditions, felt to be burdensome by the merchants in all large cities, there has arisen a demand for a classification of freight and of rules which shall be uniform throughout the country. Under the spur of the Inter-State Commission, a committee of railroad men a year or more ago after much labor devised such a uniform classification, but it failed of adoption by the roads between Chicago and the Atlantic seaboard. The annual report of the Inter-State Commission, just made to Congress, asks for an amendment to the law which shall require carriers to adopt uniformity within a fixed time. As the National Board of Trade Convention a few weeks hence will doubtless discuss this question, and as a bill may be introduced in Congress making a uniform classification of shipments compulsory upon our railways, it is well that the merchants of the States east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio Rivers should know what is involved in this demand which they are openly or tacitly endorsing.

We must remember that arranging into classes the different articles carried is not an end in itself, but a means towards determining the sum to be collected. Uniformity of classification involves a corresponding uniformity of charge; this is often forgotten. We should like, of course, to see clearness in our printed tariffs, but are we willing to pay higher charges on our manufactures for the privilege? This is the real question at issue. What is a proper rate on a given shipment must be determined by the commercial and transportation conditions under which the merchandise is carried; these conditions vary greatly in different sections of our country, and the variance is one of the principal reasons for the separation of railways into groups. Thus, the Pittsburgh or New England iron masters must sell their product in Chicago in competition with large furnaces or factories on the spot, and in competition also with Southern rivals who reach the Chicago market by other roads. The selling price in Chicago is thus limited, and so is the freight charge which can be collected on shipments to that market. On the other hand, on nails from Chicago to Arizona can be imposed what is a fair rate of itself, the consumer there paying the Chicago price plus the freight charge. The heavy traffic east of Chicago and the comparatively light traffic into Arizona make reasonable a low rate in the first instance and a high one in the second. A part of this larger charge on the Arizona shipment is covered by a higher rate, class for class, than is usual on the trunk lines, but a very important part is arranged by putting the same article in a higher class. This principle works itself out in other ways. Cotton must be carried on low classification in the South, but it does not follow that the same low class would be always fair to Northern lines. Instances of this can easily be found in all trades.

Without carrying these illustrations to a wearisome extent, let us turn to the effect of compulsory uniformity. The classification (that is to say, the rate) is high in one section and low in another. Uniformity must mean a compromise. A compromise would mean that the higher charge would be reduced, while the lower one would be advanced. As the tariffs in use on the trunk lines east of Chicago are the lowest in the United States, it follows that, in the event of uniform classification, the rates charged to and from the Atlantic seaboard would be advanced. The question involved is, therefore, simply whether Eastern producers, for the sake of an abstract theory of uniformity or for a little more ease in doing business, are willing to sacrifice their profits. It will be remembered that in the summer of 1890, when the classification question was debated by the trunk lines, it was discovered that every change in Eastern freights under the proposed uniform classification would have been an advance. When this was clearly seen to be the practical outcome, the Trunk-Line Committee declined to adopt the proposed plan. In this decision, and in any further discussion, the Eastern railways should have the hearty support of the shipping and travelling public.

It has not escaped observation that the conditions of transportation on our Western railways are gradually approaching those under which the older roads are operated. Western rates are constantly declining as population and traffic increase, and as there is increased competition between old factories and those newly established in the remoter States. Thus uniformity of classification and of rates is in process of accomplishment because really contingent upon uniformity of trade conditions; nor can we hurry its approach except at the expense of the older communities. It is, however, true that there exist to-day in some instances unnecessary and arbitrary differences between the classifications in use; differences which it is not only proper but right to abolish. But correction of errors in individual cases is one thing, while compulsory classification throughout the list is quite another. The language of the Inter-State Commission is cautious: "It is shown by the deliberate statements of experts in the employment of the carriers that a much nearer approach to uniformity than now exists is practicable" —an opinion which few dispute. But to make such a statement the basis for practical compulsion in the matter of uniform charges on all articles throughout the country, regardless of varying circumstances, is a serious mistake, the ill effects of which the shippers of the East would be the first to feel.

A LABOR CHURCH.

A NOVEL experiment in the evangelization of the poor is reported from Manchester, England. The Rev. John Trevor, who spent some time as assistant minister in London, and who is now in charge of a Free Church in Manchester, recently set going an institution which he himself calls a "Labor Church." The motives and aims back of the effort may be gathered from a circular which Mr. Trevor distributed last July. In that he said:

> "Those who have been most active in promoting popular services, and the various social enterprises now considered essential to active church life, appear to admit with sorrow that very few indeed of the workers themselves are attracted to any religious organization, or give practical assistance to the work done for their own class. Men and women everywhere are willing to come and listen to smart addresses and good music, and, undoubtedly, many are benefited by what they hear. But they are not organized, they do not work, they will accept no responsibility, they do not give financial support to the movement. Everything is done for them, and they are simply willing to be catered for. . . .
>
> "The next step forward in developing religious life, and improving social conditions in our land, must be to bring religion into practical harmony with the workingmen who are really alive and in earnest about the elevation of their class. If these men are manifesting little interest in the churches, and in the social work they are doing, it is because the preponderating bulk of religious influence in our country is still opposed to their advancement, and also because, even when religion does appear to take their part, it is usually in such a mild manner that it becomes questionable to them whether active opposition would not be preferable."

Mr. Trevor then asked: "Cannot religion be presented in such a form that it shall become a real power and inspiration in the lives of these earnest and clear-headed workingmen? Cannot a religious organization be formed which, while supporting them in their daily life and social work, shall in turn be cordially supported

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by them?" It was in the hope of solving that problem that he set about establishing his "Labor Church," which is now holding regular meetings in a public hall in Manchester, and is said to be flourishing. He says that his church is to "include what, for want of a better name, may be called the Labor Program, with a distinct recognition of God's government of the world, and of the need, in every sphere of life, to obey the laws He has revealed to us." And in an account of his work which he contributed to a London paper, he showed what his "Labor Program" means, by affirming:

> "The true representative of the labor movement is John Burns, standing in the prisoners' dock after the Trafalgar Square riots; Ben Tillett, preaching at the dock gates the glad tidings of the tanner; or the poor Socialist, standing on an old wooden chair in the rain, shouting himself hoarse to catch a few stragglers.
>
> "These are the men who represent God's power in the world. . . . Many of them are called atheists, infidels, self-seeking agitators, agents of the Evil One, stirring up strife on which they may grow fat. And some of these brave men, denounced by the official representatives of God, deny the God in whose name they are denounced, and submit, without retort, to be called atheists."

We call attention to this unique experiment, and to the methods on which it is conducted, not for the sake of its own importance, which does not appear to be great as yet, but on account of its marking the extreme of a tendency which has long been observable in the churches. We mean the tendency to make concession after concession in order to win back to the churches the alienated working classes. Here is the origin of the modern variations in methods of church work and appeal, in cities especially, which are known as "popular services," "carrying the Gospel to the masses," and so on. The motto has been to become all things to all men if by any means workingmen may be got to go to church. So that it is but a logical extension of a common principle for the Manchester pastor to set up a branch for Socialistic propaganda, in which a minimum amount of theistic belief is included, and call it a "church." Probably the agitators whom he is able to bring to his side are shrewd enough to be indifferent to the name as long as they get the thing. If they could get influential supporters for their views of the labor question, and an advantageous and unwonted platform from which to urge their favorite remedies for social ills, they would doubtless be willing to be known either as Jews, Turks, or Christians, and would acquiesce as readily in having their organization called a "Labor Synagogue" or "Labor Mosque" as in naming it a "Labor Church."

The Manchester experiment ought to serve a useful purpose in showing exactly on what terms a union can be effected between the Socialists of the Democratic Federation and the Christian Church. The former give up nothing, and the latter everything —except religious passion and enthusiasm, which it is at perfect liberty to transfer to the new "Gospel of Labor." Matthew Arnold's definition of religion as "morality touched with emotion," would soon have to be made over if the "Labor Church" were to have its way, so that it would read: "Religion is Socialism held as passionate faith instead of reasoned conviction." It seems evident that the Manchester Socialists have greatly the advantage. They have positive views and know precisely what they want. On the other hand, Mr. Trevor and his sympathizers cling only to a vague theism as absolutely indispensable, and are sure simply that they want somehow to put an end to the estrangement between the workingmen and the Church. When two parties thus circumstanced come to an agreement, it is not doubtful on which side the substance will be found and on which the shadow.

On the other hand, this clear showing of the conditions on which alone a "Labor Church" is possible should serve to reinforce the very best forms of work among laboring people which the Church is adopting to-day. We have recently referred to these. Springing from Christian motives, in most cases, and conducted in a Christian spirit, they yet put distinctly Christian teaching into the background, and give their strength to education, in a broad sense, and social reform. The social and debating clubs of the University Settlements, for example, are far better places to come to grapple with Socialism and the labor movement than any so-called church, which must practically concede all the claims of Socialists before it can join forces with them. We have no doubt that a great deal more good is done in some of those clubs in London, where Oxford and Cambridge graduates and professors discuss Socialism with its advocates, than can be looked for in a "church" where Socialism acquires religious sanctions. In the club the social question can be discussed on its merits, and whatever truth there may be in Socialistic doctrine can be argued out and accepted without either giving it the artificial aid of religious enthusiasm, or, on the other hand, loading down a religious system with harmful theories of society.

"SUFFERING PARIS."

PARIS, December 23, 1891.

A GLOOMY title, 'Paris qui souffre,' but not a bad one, for two works by M. Adolphe Guillot, a police magistrate of Paris and one of our criminalists. One of these two volumes is a curious monograph on the Morgue, the other is a description of the 'Prisons and Prisoners of Paris.'

I am an old Parisian (it is not necessary to be born in Paris to be a Parisian), but I must confess that I have never entered the Morgue. I have often wandered on the shores of the Seine, and admired the beautiful and suggestive view which you have when you come before Notre Dame. Behind the splendid cathedral, on a sort of little promontory of the island on which it is built, is a low building; it is the Morgue, the temple of suicide. The church is sometimes empty; the Morgue always has visitors. Men and women enter into it, some led by a morbid curiosity, others, alas! by the fear and the hope of discovering some relation or friend.

M. Firmin Maillard was the first who wrote an historical study on the origin of the Morgue, in 1860. He could not find out exactly when first a place was chosen for the deposit and exhibition of the corpses of unknown persons, found in the streets or in the river. We know by the registers of the Grand Châtelet, which have been kept since 1651, that these corpses were exposed in it, and afterwards buried by the Sisters of St. Catherine. The Châtelet was first a fortified castle in the city; it afterwards became its judicial centre and gave its name to a prison; it was essentially a municipal prison, where all the men arrested in the streets of Paris were first taken. The Sisters of St. Catherine, commonly called Catherinettes, were very popular; their statutes obliged them to receive all poor women for the night, and to feed them for three successive days.

Where did the name Morgue come from? We see it appear first in the Academy's Dictionary in 1718; Voltaire uses it in a letter to M. de Thibouville in 1777; Littré finds its origin in a word of Languedoc, *morga*, which signifies face. The word *morgue* is used also to describe a proud and haughty demeanor: we say familiarly, "La morgue espagnole." Is there a relation between the two senses of the word Morgue? In his 'Répertoire de Jurisprudence' of 1768, Denisart says: "The *basse geôle*, which is in the court of the Grand Châtelet, where are exposed the corpses of those who are not recognized or claimed immediately, is called Morgue from the verb *morguer*, which, in one of its significations, means to look fixedly, as people do before a dead body which they cannot recognize." In our old French, *geôle* was employed more often than prison; it now applies only to the House of Detention. We call it *greffe*, the place where the prisoners are visited and inscribed (*écroués*), and we have kept the word morgue only for the place of exhibition of the dead.

The Morgue has been one of the cradles of what we call "legal medicine." The Châtelet had its surgeons who made official reports on the bodies which bore marks of violence. These surgeons were not functionaries; at the present moment all the bodies brought to the Morgue are examined by a doctor, and he has to send a report to the *parquet* (the public prosecutor). If there is no sign of crime, the *parquet* authorizes burial; when a crime is suspected, a police magistrate takes charge of the affair, and authorizes an autopsy. As soon as this is made, the doctor sends his report to the magistrate. The doctors of the Morgue have no right to use the bodies, either for their lectures, or for "legal medicine," or for their own scientific researches, except when the bodies are not claimed and have been unrecognized, or when the families, after having recognized them, have not claimed them. The Penal Code of 1810 specifies, in article 14, that the bodies even of criminals who have suffered capital punishment shall be delivered to their families if claimed, on condition that they be buried without ostentation. We have even gone further: for some time unclaimed bodies of criminals who had been guillotined were given over immediately to professors of physiology in the Collège de France, who submitted them to various experiments. Now the criminal himself can decide whether or no this shall take place; we allow him the right not to become an object of scientific inquiry, and to

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have an ordinary burial, even if he is completely abandoned by his family.

The bodies exposed at the Morgue can be legally subjected to an autopsy if they have remained unrecognized after an exposure of from ten to fifteen days; practically this does not take place, as it is feared that the families are not always warned in time and that this delay is not long enough. The only bodies thus treated are those which have been recognized, but unclaimed by the families, or those of the persons who have been murdered. Lectures on "legal medicine" take place regularly at the Morgue, and there is now a real clinic where young experts are trained in all the branches of medicine which touch on suicide and crime. Dr. Brouardel has organized this service as well as he could with the means placed at his disposal.

There is some question of reconstructing the Morgue on a larger scale; and in view of this the question of public exposure has been much discussed. M. Guillot pronounces against it. He says:

"For a long time, the public exposure of criminals has been abolished. The time is near, I hope, when executions will take place inside of the prisons. The spectacle of the Morgue is no better; it familiarizes people with the sight of blood and with contempt for human life. Let us at least turn away the children who come there to satisfy a precocious curiosity; let us shut the door on this indiscreet crowd, on these women with shameless eyes, these men who are on the search for an emotion or a crime. Let the doors be open only to those who are brought there by a clear interest; to them the Morgue will transform itself; we call as witnesses those who have seen it only when the public is gone, and when silence reigns; then it takes on an air of majesty, and becomes almost a holy place."

It was certainly an original idea to write a book on the Morgue, and to pay so much attention to the temple of death, of criminal or voluntary death, in this city of Paris, which has the well-deserved reputation of being addicted to pleasure. But there are men and women in Paris who give almost all of life to philanthropy; they do it noiselessly, in a true Christian spirit, and this same spirit will be found in 'The Prisons and Prisoners of Paris,' by M. Guillot. Permanent contact with criminals has not hardened him; it has inspired him with a sentiment of profound pity and compassion. Not that this pity goes so far as to excuse crime or to attempt to diminish human responsibility. M. Guillot does not belong to the modern criminalist school, which has invented the "criminal man," the man born for crime, absolutely irresponsible, led by hereditary and irresistible instincts. M. Guillot believes in hereditary instincts, in their influence, in the influence of education and of the surrounding medium; he believes also in human liberty.

His work is a minute description of the ancient and the modern prisons of Paris. The most ancient prison was the Roman dungeon, which Gregory of Tours describes under the name of *carcer Glaucini*. Saint Denys was shut up in it by order of the Roman Governor; it became afterwards the chapel of a little church. Under Louis XVI., Paris had eight principal prisons—the Grand and the Petit Châtelet, the Conciergerie, For-l'Évêque, the Magdelonettes, Sainte-Pélagie, La Force, the Temple, La Salpétrière, Bicêtre, Saint-Lazare, the Bastille. Many of these prisons have been minutely described; the memoirs of the Revolution have rendered some of them famous. Balzac in one of his novels has led us through all the doors and passages of the Conciergerie. The prisoners who were in the Châtelet on the 2d of September, 1792, were all massacred. The Châtelet itself exists no more, and there remains no trace of it. As for the Conciergerie, it still forms one of the most beautiful features in the valley of the Seine, near the Palais de Justice and the Sainte-Chapelle. Three of its old towers still exist — the Tower of Cæsar, the Silver Tower (Tour d'Argent, so called, probably, because in Saint-Louis's time it was inhabited by his mother, Queen Blanche), and the Tower called Bon-Bec. The Magdelonettes have been demolished in recent years, and have been replaced by the prison, "de la Santé." Sainte-Pélagie has been described by Mme. Roland, who left it to go to the scaffold. Saint-Lazare is a dark and gloomy building, which was at first built for the unfortunates who were attacked with leprosy. The Kings and Queens often visited it, and made it their last station before being carried to the Church of Saint-Denis. The Abbé of Saint-Lazare was an ecclesiastical lord of the first rank. This prison is now at the same time a prison and a hospital exclusively for women. For-l'Évêque became famous, as it always received the comedians arrested in virtue of a *lettre de cachet*. Mlle. Clairon remained in it five days, and received in it the homage of her numerous admirers. This prison has been demolished. La Force was opened only in 1782 as a prison; it was a part of the ancient Hôtel Saint-Pol, which belonged to Charles, King of Naples and Sicily, a brother of Saint Louis, and afterwards to the Dukes of La Force. "La Petite Force" was annexed to "La Force"; it was the Hôtel de Brienne, and was intended chiefly for the class of women who in the last century were called *femmes du monde*, and who would not in our time be called even "du demi-monde." Poor Mme. de Lamballe was shut up with these unfortunates and cut up by the populace. During the September massacres the blood flowed in torrents in the prison of La Force. This prison was shut up only in 1850; the 700 prisoners who were in it at the time were transferred to the new prison of Mazas, which shows its high walls near the terminus of the Lyons-Marseilles Railway. The name of Bicêtre comes from an Englishman (Winchester) who had a castle on the spot in the sixteenth century. Bicêtre is called by Mercier, in his 'Tableau de Paris,' the ulcer of Paris; it has ceased to be a prison and is now only a hospital. The Bastille was the State Prison; it is needless to say under what circumstances it was demolished. The Temple received Louis XVI. within its walls, and thus gained an eternal celebrity; it was demolished in 1811, and prisoners guilty of high treason have ever since been sent to the dungeons of Vincennes.

The genesis of crime fills the greater part of the work of M. Guillot: he shows us the roads to the prison, as well as the prisons themselves; the personal, domestic, and social causes of the demoralization of men and women in a great capital, the destruction of family ties, the corruption engendered by bad examples, by poverty, by the competition of labor, by the organization of huge shops, by the *hôtels garnis*, the cafés, the brasseries, the races. He analyzes at length the effects of alcoholism; he has a curious chapter on the crimes which go now under the name of *passionels*, and criticises the leniency of the jury and its responsibility. There is, in fact, not a line in his work which is not instructive and suggestive.

IN SICILIAN SULPHUR MINES.

CALTANISETTA, Dec. 12, 1891.

ALL the descriptions penned by philanthropists, sensationalists, and Socialists of the sulphur mines of Sicily, and the work of children therein, which seemed sheer exaggeration when read in northern Italy or abroad, fall far short of the reality, which the pen of Dante could not portray. Not the slavery of the negroes in its worst aspect, not the sweating of the whites as we know it in London and in all great cities, can compare in any least degree with the inhuman system of child torture openly and continuously practised in all the sulphur mines of the island, and especially in the central Province of Caltanisetta and the adjoining Province of Girgenti, bordering on the sea. This last week I have spent chiefly in and around the mines and in the mining-district, as a penance for the pleasant tour through the Provinces of Trapani and Palermo, where the progress everywhere manifest, the healthy aspect of the country population, fill one with exultation, and dissipate the gloomy doubts which often assail one as to the benefits of liberty and civilization.

Nor does your first arrival at Caltanisetta dispel these illusions. The town is built up the hilly slope, has some fine buildings old and new; the population, as you see it in the daytime, looks sturdy and healthy. Butchers' shops are plentiful, the fish market may vie with Palermo for the fine soles and enormous red mullet that come from Terra Nuova direct by rail; the fruit and vegetables, artichokes and *finocchi*, the oranges, lemons, and mandarins, the figs and almonds and big loaves of well-baked wheaten bread exposed for sale, seem to promise that here is "bread and work for all." But wait till eventime; go up to the top of the city, and, while chatting with the women who are preparing the evening meal of lentils or dried horse beans in dirty, airless, stinking hovels, watch for the first arrival of the *carusi*. Note the first batch of children, varying in age from six to ten, who work on the top of and about the mines, and who, if too young to be put to work at all, bear as yet no traces of it on their bright, impish, dirty faces or thin, half-naked bodies; wait for the next batch of lads, varying from twelve to fifteen or seventeen years of age. The smaller and younger still retain the form and features of human beings, though their eyes are red and bleared and their skin sallow and thick; but the older they are, the more marked the result of hours and days and months and years of toil in the subterraneous caverns and galleries of the sulphur mines. All, or nearly all, have a hump on the left shoulder-blade; many a hacking cough; all are listless, taciturn, unless aroused to anger—then woe to the offender or even the bystander: out flies the long, slim, sharp knife, regulation size, if indeed the ever-ready revolver does not do swifter and deadlier work. Wait as you will, the stream pours on and in; hundreds and thousands of *solfatari* walk to and from their work, two, four, even six miles each day, preferring this additional fatigue to eating and sleeping in the pestiferous atmosphere of the sulphur mines.

When the price of sulphur is high, as at present, from fifty to sixty thousand men and children are employed in extracting and bringing to the surface the sulphur in its natural state, *i. e.*, mixed with the calcareous, clayey, or chalky soil; so it may be calculated that four times the number exist on the product of their toil. The proportion of the mineral to the soil varies from 8 to 40 per cent., the medium being 24 per cent., as the poorest mines are worked only at intervals and abandoned when prices fall. But the natural wealth of

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the mines adds nothing to the earnings of the *caruso* (literally a "boy," but now a term applied to all the toilers who bring the raw material to the surface of the pit). The mines all or nearly all belong to wealthy proprietors of the soil, of the old feudal estates; and though now the *feudi* are abolished, the *ex-feudi*, as they are called, still remain in the same families. When a proprietor of the soil possesses, or believes that he possesses, a sulphur mine (the indications are various and of interest only to experts and owners), he is bound to inform the authorities and pay a small sum (about $25) for the right of working the mine. Here his duties end and his rights begin. Few proprietors work their own mines. They seek or are sought by a *gabelloto*, who hires the mine for four, nine, or even eighteen years. All the expenses of exploration, sinking pits, constructing galleries, etc., are assumed by the *gabelloto*, or contractor, who pays the proprietor so many loaves or *balate* of sulphur, which his own agent selects and carries off. The proprietor keeps a staff of agents to look after his interests; to see that so many galleries, arches, columns are constructed and kept in due repair, so that, at the expiration of the lease, the proprietor may find all in due order, and be able to make better terms with the next contractor. Some are obliged to construct galleries for draining off the water, and *calcaroni* or furnaces; and the very agents of the owner are often paid by the contractor, who is also expected to pay the taxes—the land and income tax which the present Government exacts relentlessly. Hence the owner risks nothing, "not the shadow of a cent." Rarely does the first contractor make ends meet; he fails and is ruined, but the owner has his mine in working order and finds plenty of *gabelloti* who compete with each other in their tenders.

The *gabelloto*, when once the mine is in working order, has to find his miners, and as he rarely has sufficient capital for his enterprise, he trades on borrowed money at exorbitant interest. The *sborsante*, who only lends when the sulphur is actually found, so that he can fall upon it and secure repayment, lives in the city, and from banks or individuals can obtain money at a low interest, which the *gabelloto* never can. Then he has to seek one or more *capomastri*, or miners who have gone through all the stages of the "art," have been *carusi* and *picconieri*, and who, though few of them can read or write, have such absolute material and empirical knowledge of the operations and of the special mine in which they have worked from babyhood, as may put to shame the engineers, directors, etc., who issue from the technical schools, institutes, and universities. The plan or map of the mine they carry in their heads, and from long experience know the habits and customs of the workmen, over whom they have extraordinary influence, as they never arrive at the post of *capomastro* unless endowed with intelligence, energy, courage, and, comparatively speaking, probity. Their duties are various—chiefly to direct the choice of the gallery to be worked, to superintend the erection of columns, the filling up of exhausted passages, and the superintendence of the *picconiere*, or actual miner, who, with his pickaxe from which he takes his name, brings down the material, or bores the rock for blasting. This *picconiere* is a notable personage in the mining hierarchy. He also must be robust, intelligent, and able to command and control his subalterns, the wretched *carusi;* and the fact that he has been a *caruso* himself seems only to make him harder and sterner in his dealings with the crew. The *picconiere* refuses always and absolutely to work by the day, even at the highest wages. Down in the bowels of the earth, naked and dripping with sweat, he wields his pickaxe for six, eight, ten, even twelve hours—as long as his strength holds out. The depth of the mines varies from mine to mine, and in the same mine from plane to plane. Maybe the first gallery is at 150 metres below the mouth of the pit; 50 feet lower another gallery, again, and again, the lowest 300 metres often. The heat is so intense that only those used to it can stand it. Each miner or *picconiere* has so many *carusi*—boys of twelve, men up to sixty—who transport the material either to the cars or to boxes on wheels, or to the mouth of the pit. These cars run on inclined planes, but "lifts" are now introduced in some of the largest mines, and only where there are such contrivances can a stranger descend.

We have visited two mines during the past week, each time arriving at the surface with fervent resolve never again to seek such sickening sights. It is not the physical inconvenience that hurts, but the horror of the spectacle. Where these slides, or lifts, are used, you may, if you do not descend, leave the mines with the conviction that all the process is carried on by this rough sort of machinery; but it is not so. The boxes go down only about a third or half the depth of the mine; and from the bottom up to the level where the cars land, the children or men bring up the material in sacks, baskets, or even the huge blocks on their backs, in loads of 10, 20, 50, even 80 and 100 kilos per journey. Up the steep, slimy, slippery steps or paths they go, scarcely daring to rest a second, every one in three carrying a stinking oil-lamp stuck on his head, sweating, panting, moaning with a peculiar and specially heart-rending groan till he reaches the "magazine," or depot, flings down his load, then turns, and with lightning speed dashes down again—some of the little ones out of whose bodies life has not yet been crushed actually singing, capering with the sheer joy of the momentary relief from pain. Ten, eleven journeys these "bearers" make per day, and, if the distances are short, twenty, and even thirty.

The worst feature of the case is that the children are farmed out by their own fathers and often their own mothers to the *picconieri;* hence their life-long slavery begins at ten years. The toil is such that when the mines are all at work, as at present, the *picconieri* have difficulty in finding sufficient *carusi* to carry up the material; and as they are paid by the job—so much for each "box" (*cassa*)—this is a serious matter. A family is "in want"; the father or mother seeks a *picconiere* and gets a loan of five, ten, even twenty dollars, and pledges the boy to work it out. The debt goes on increasing, for the miners and their families never save a cent, and when the *picconiere* sweats unmercifully, often the *caruso* will seek another, saying, "Give me such and such a sum to pay off so and so, and I will come to you." It is a point of honor for no *picconiere* of the same mine to take the *caruso* of another. When one does so, they "have it out" on Saturday or Sunday, and hence the frequent scenes of bloodshed that occur. When the *caruso*, come to man's estate, gets so over head and ears in debt that the miner sweats him without payment, he absconds, leaves the province for another mining district, and there begins again. The miner goes to the home of his indebted *caruso*, and, failing to find him, reports *perhaps;* but neither the police nor the mining population assists his researches, and this fear of losing the "bearer" of his treasure is the only check on the brutality of the *picconiere*.

Crime of every sort, and especially the unnamable vice, goes on in these mines. The *camorra* of course thrives, nor can any police regulations avail. In olden times the mines were the resort of brigands and *renitenti* and deserters; now the brigands are extinct. Old Mr. Rose, the last Englishman carried off by the band of Leone, farms his mines in peace at Lercara, and has the reputation of being a very humane part proprietor, part *gabelloto*. Conscripts no longer shirk the levy, deserters are rarer still, though the mining districts furnish very few soldiers, the most being rejected as "deformed," *i. e.*, hunch-backed, or half-blind, or bow-legged. But crime and criminals thrive; and as no books are kept, and workmen come and go at will, or with the connivance of the *picconieri*, here they find safe hiding-places, and miners, like dead men, "tell no tales."

As yet we have spoken only of the mines where the material is brought up at least half way on trucks; but if the visitor who has come to the surface of one of these insists on the fact that in near spots the *carusi* do all the business, he will succeed in being taken there, and on a rough waste at the pit's mouth will see one after another the naked, sweating toilers reach the surface, bending under their load—the groaning, not dissimilar to the death-rattle, audible and continuous long before you *see* the scarcely human creatures who issue from the mouth of hell. It is said that the children are used gently and by degrees to the toil and danger; and in fact it is one of the duties of the *capomastro* to see that each new comer descends only a certain depth, carries only a certain weight, and is assisted by a more experienced *caruso* to the surface. But only the other day a boy, barely of the prescribed age, sold by his mother to the *picconiere*, too heavily laden and not guided at all, rolled down the almost perpendicular steep, and, crushed under his load, was taken out, after his first journey, a mangled corpse, to his last home, which is but another pit. Note another fact. In a mining district some two miles from Caltanisetta, where there are seven important mines, in each of which the workers vary from 100 to 1,000, there is not a single doctor or surgeon on the spot. Sufferers (and they are numerous) taken ill or injured in the mines, and brought to the surface by their comrades, have to be taken into the town *on foot*, to be cared for or to die. As a rule, catastrophes are rare, yet they do happen when the mines are not properly ventilated or the airshaft is obstructed. One happened some years since in the very mine we descended yesterday. Fifty corpses were taken out, forty died on the surface, other thirty were saved by the courage and coolness of the *capomastro* (Gagliardi by name), who has the gold medal and ten children, not one of whom is he bringing up to his direful, dangerous trade.

Need I say that miners chiefly figure on the list of delinquents, and especially as homicides? Girgenti stands first on the list—50 per 100,000; Caltanisetta, 35, as against 2, 3, 5, 8 in other non-mining districts. The prisons are the very worst I have ever visited—which is saying much. One of them is actually in the same building as the elementary and secondary schools; male and female prisoners, condemned and those arrested and awaiting their trial, all huddled together, with crime for school and the worst species of camorrists for school-

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masters. I was able to visit all the cells and to speak with the prisoners. Asking for what fault each was arrested, the murderers answered frankly, "Homicide"; the thieves looked ashamed; those imprisoned "for crime against morality," indifferent or cynical. Numbers are there for participation in strikes. For one strike at Monte d'Oro there is a father, his wife, and two sons, his brother, and nephew, with wife and infant, born in prison. I mean to reach the history and mystery of that strike. No one was hurt or killed; no intimidation was used, as the entire family of miners struck for higher wages, and because the box, according to them, was bigger than it ought to be (as here the money is paid by size and not by weight). They burnt the *cassa*, and threatened the Mayor, who is also interested in the mine; did not disperse at the order of the carbineers, and some say threw stones. The punishment has been mitigated "by royal decree," but has twenty-one months still to run. A worse strike took place at Favara, in the province of Girgenti, where the cause was the truck system and tally shops—an infamous system grafted on a shameless institution. The men clamored to be paid in money, not in bad flour and paper shoes, at high prices. The employers combined and refused; the men and women set fire to the Casino dei Signori, the gentlemen's club, and in the scuffle killed a carbineer. Here the penalty will be thirty years at the galleys.

In a mine some twenty miles from Caltanisetta, conducted by a French company, the *capomastro* was murdered last month in the mine and a shot fired at the French engineer. The firer, a lad of twenty, was arrested and is condemned to twenty years at the galleys. The rest are still on trial. Here cause and consequence follow in rapid succession. On Saturday the miners all knock off work at twelve, and Saturday afternoon and Sunday they spend chiefly in the public houses, drinking the cheap, strong wines of the country, and adjusting their quarrels. Their earnings vary. The miner makes from three to four lire a day, the *caruso* from one to two lire. The latter rarely see their money, but the *picconieri*, after giving their wives (whom, by the way, they never ill treat, even in drink) sufficient for next week's food (*bread* at breakfast and dinner, soup of paste and vegetables in the evening), drink up all the rest.

Attempts have been made by benevolent citizens not interested in mining gains to better their condition. Evening schools are opened, and it is wonderful how many tired, wretched children frequent them. Mutual aid societies, for pay during illness and for burial expenses, you find here and there, but these are poultices on cancer, and nothing more. Here we want missionaries—a Mazzini, a Lloyd Garrison, Mrs. Fry, Lucretia Mott, the Rochdale pioneers—to get hold of the children, of their mothers; to stir up public opinion until, while the "sacred rights of property" are respected, the sacred rights of humanity shall not be openly, flagrantly, brutally violated. Here, indeed, the young men who spout at clubs and twaddle in newspapers might find a grand field for labor; find an "ideal" which they complain is wanting to their generation. Communal, provincial, State authorities are called upon by these "reformers" to mend all; but they can do next to nothing until the mining populations combine to will an altered state of things—not by partial, useless, and lawless strikes, seeing they save not a farthing for the time when they are out of work, but by bringing their wants and wills, their sufferings and their wrongs, to bear on the absentee proprietors and the sweaters, etc. The time will come, is coming; but now one can only exclaim, with wrung heart and harrowed soul, "How long, oh Italy! how long!" J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE CONFLICT OF THE FUTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Gov. Russell has justified the efforts which the people of Massachusetts made last autumn in his behalf. In his inaugural address he has strongly and clearly developed the idea which he started last year, and which has been the keynote of his administration—the false position of, and the want of responsible power in, the chief executive. He points out that, with the confirmation of appointments and removals by the Council, there are practically ten Governors instead of one; that there are twenty-five State commissions and more than 100 trustees of public institutions.

"Experience has shown as practical results of such a system:

"First—That neither the Governor nor the people through him have any adequate power over the executive departments, of which he is the head, but his power is practically limited to suggestions, advice, and appointments to fill vacancies.

"Second—That over many of the departments and executive offices there is no power of control in any one.

"Third—That the power of removal, and so of control, usually requires for its exercise a formal trial upon specific charges, and proof of absolute malfeasance in office.

"Fourth—That an officer of an important public department accused of official misconduct which, in the opinion of the Governor, requires his removal, may remain in office without the confidence and against the will of his executive chief.

"Fifth—That a member of an important commission may hold his office indefinitely after his term has expired, without appointment and without the approval of the Governor.

"Sixth—That nominees of the Governor, beyond criticism and objection, may be refused confirmation for the sole and declared purpose of holding in office men whose term of office has expired.

"Seventh—That with the present limitations upon the power of removal, the power to confirm can always be used for this purpose, and successfully in every case of an expired term."

It is true that he does not touch upon the root and basis of the whole evil, the fact that executive unity and subordination are destroyed by the separate election of the chief officers of the State; but his vision seems to be obscured in this respect by the Democratic maxim that the people have the right to elect their officers, not seeing that in the executive branch this is fatal not only to efficiency, but to a working possibility as well as to all responsibility, and that the true way for the people to exercise control is to elect one head and make him responsible for his subordinates.

The Governor halts, also, in his proposal for remedy. Instead of boldly demanding the abolition of the Council and the power of appointment for the Governor of the chief officers of the State, and through them of their subordinates—one man in every place—and thus paving the way for the ultimate abolition of the commissions and boards of trustees, Gov. Russell modestly limits himself to a request for the power of removal of officials, leaving the confirmation of appointments to the Council, and, besides this, the whole jumble of commissions and trustees, with various terms of office. The demand is so small that, even if it were granted, it would make hardly a perceptible difference in his position.

But it will not be granted. The people of this country are accustomed to the party conflicts of Republicans and Democrats, but they have not waked up to the fact that there is an "irrepressible conflict" between Executive and Legislature; that the Legislature has absorbed practically all the power, and used it to reduce all government to anarchy, of which the ultimate result is civil war and, beyond that, despotism. The Legislature will no more grant Gov. Russell's demand than they would the rest, and their simple mode of defeating him is to pay no attention to his recommendations, or, what is the same thing, refer them to a committee, so that after a year or two the obnoxious incumbent may glide out of office with no result beyond the satisfaction of expressing his opinions. The struggle is an unequal one between a single man, who can retain office but for a short period, and a numerous body, which, however its members may change, remains animated by the same corporate spirit.

How the people, by whose aid alone any successful result can be obtained, can be made to understand the question, and to put forth their strength in relation to it, is a problem by no means easy of solution. But if we consider that the difficulty is the same with the government of forty-four States as well as that of the nation, although at Washington it is in a different stage, then I say that Gov. Russell deserves the gratitude of the whole United States for having had the courage, in defiance of tradition and of the spirit of the Legislature, to state squarely the issue upon which more than any other the future of government in this country depends.

If the people of the United States should see the point, and give him that reward which would do most to stimulate him and other Governors to move on in the same direction, I can only say that my respect for popular government and universal suffrage, standing already at a very high point, would be enormously increased. Gamaliel Bradford.

Boston, January 9, 1892.

PARTY AN END IN ITSELF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: No better illustration can be found of the humiliating principles which are now dominating the quondam great Republican party of Massachusetts than is furnished by the speech of Mr. W. E. Barrett at Brockton the other night. This is a time peculiarly favorable to the honest, straightforward discussion of political problems. In the lull which fills the interval between the squall just past and the heavy storm to come, candid and sincere opinions are given which it is impossible to obtain at any other time. Consequently, the words of a leader are looked upon as carrying a special weight and significance. According to the advice of the Honorable Speaker of our House of Representatives, the lofty aim and purpose of the party with the "grand old past" should henceforth be to "inculcate in the minds of the voters the belief that the Republican party is an organization . . . determined at all events to form itself into a great political army, not for one election, not for one decade, but for generations." And a little further on he declares that if only the Republican party has clung to the principle of popular sovereignty, "then it is an organization not meant for one crisis or for one generation, but to be strengthened and perfected, no matter under what

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leader or what may be the temporary questions which present themselves.'' It is this policy of putting the cart before the horse, party before principle, that has repelled from the Republican party a host of conscience voters since 1884. In our last State campaign, circulars were sent among Republican voters asking their opinion as to the issues on which the coming campaign should be fought! I cannot imagine a more shameful confession of utter lack of honest purpose. To Mr. Barrett belongs the glory of first coming out squarely and openly for conducting future campaigns upon no issue whatever.

Obtuseness has never characterized the voters of Massachusetts, and one or two more speeches like the one under discussion will open their eyes to the fact that their politics is being run ''for selfish political ends, or for no end at all.'' Yours respectfully,

R. W. W.

Boston, January 5, 1892.

THE ADVENT OF THE AUSTRALIAN BALLOT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in the January *Forum* on the Australian Ballot reminds me that before it is too late I should put in my claim as first inventor, or, in other words, claim the authorship of the first ''Australian Ballot Law'' in the United States. The Kentucky act to amend the election laws for the city of Louisville was passed on the 18th of February, 1888. The skeleton of the act was read by me, with comments upon its main features, at a meeting of the ''Conversation Club,'' one of the two leading literary societies of Louisville, in October, 1887. Mr. Arthur Wallace had been elected to the Legislature from Louisville in August of that year, and had resolved to put through a radical measure of reform. He knew that I took an interest in the subject, and that I had some experience in framing municipal laws. I was then Assistant City Attorney, and drawing charter amendments was in the line of my duty. But this particular amendment was not of the kind which the authorities would request me to frame; in fact, the men most powerful in the city councils were bitterly opposed to it.

In conference with Mr. Wallace, I drew up the bill substantially as it passed, yielding those points to him, of course, which he insisted on; all but the new criminal clauses, in which, knowing the laxity of our punitive justice, I felt very little interest. Mr. Wallace, by giving up all and every private object, and concentrating his endeavors solely on this great object of reform, succeeded, with the aid of the country members, in getting the bill passed, and I believe it antedates the Massachusetts Act of 1888. It applied only to this city; our Constitution, as it then stood, demanded viva-voce voting in all State and county elections.

Our bill was framed mainly on the British Act of 1872. The candidates were to be grouped in alphabetic order, and about this there was no room for choice, as it was not usual then to have party nominations. Of course, there were no pasters and no permission to use unofficial ballots. The only provision for illiterates was the distribution on the eve of election of a facsimile ballot, on which the illiterate might, by inquiry among his friends, learn how to vote. The Court of Appeals having intimated that this is not enough, the law has since been amended by authorizing the clerk of the polls to make a dot against the name indicated by the illiterate voter, who may afterwards put his cross either there or elsewhere as he chooses. The act has a corrupt-practices clause; that is, a single attempt at bribery or intimidation which can be brought home to the candidate, avoids his certificate, suit being brought for that purpose before the common-law court by any five citizens. A contest is also to be decided by the court, not as heretofore by the Council.

The new Constitution extends the ''secret official ballot'' and the principle of the ''corrupt-practices'' act to the whole State; but before it was framed, some of the smaller cities had in the main copied the ''Wallace Law,'' and it is quite likely that, but for this initial step, the Convention of 1890-'91 would not have undertaken to embody this reform in such strong, sweeping, and unequivocal words in the organic law of the State.

Very respectfully, Lewis N. Dembitz.

Louisville, January 2, 1892.

BOBBIN AND LATCH-STRING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It may interest your correspondent on the ''Bobbin and Latch-string'' in No. 1383 of the *Nation* to know that among poor people in this State the ''latch-string'' is in common use. A wooden latch is used, to which a string is fastened and passed through a hole in the door, three or four inches above the latch. The door is made secure against outsiders by simply pulling in the string. ''My latch-string always hangs outside for you'' is a common phrase in this State, and is understood to be synonymous with unbounded hospitality.

Yours respectfully, G. S. W.

North Carolina, January 5, 1892.

Notes.

Roberts Bros., Boston, publish this week 'A Last Harvest: Lyrics and Sonnets,' by Philip Bourke Marston, edited by Mrs. Louise Chandler Moulton; a cheaper edition of William Morris's 'Story of the Glittering Plain'; 'The Tragic Comedians,' by George Meredith; 'Wells of English,' by Isaac Bassett Choate; and 'Pastels of Men,' by Paul Bourget, a second series, translated by Miss Wormeley.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce a serial publication, 'The Homes and Haunts of Shakspere,' by James L. Williams, with photogravure and other illustrations; a series of English poets, to be called ''The Muses' Library,'' beginning with Herrick, to which Mr. Swinburne furnishes a preface; a ''Great Educators Series,'' beginning with Aristotle, by Thomas Davidson, and Loyola, by the Rev. Thomas Hughes; and 'Two Happy Years in Ceylon,' by Mrs. C. F. Gordon Cumming.

The Harpers have nearly ready the volume of Moltke's early letters to his mother and brothers; 'The Marquis of Salisbury,' by H. D. Traill; and a new and revised edition of Keep's Autenrieth's 'Homeric Dictionary.'

Cassell & Co. have in preparation a 'A Life of Gen. Robert Toombs,' by Pleasant A. Stovall.

Macmillan & Co. announce for early publication a new volume of the ''Library of Philosophy,'' entitled 'The Philosophy of Aesthetics,' by Bernard Bosanquet.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will issue next month the American copyright edition of 'Meditations on the Life of Christ,' by Thomas à Kempis, a work generally unknown.

Thomas Whittaker is about to publish 'A Cyclopædia of Nature Teachings,' with an introduction by Hugh Macmillan, LL.D.

'A First Family of Tasajura,' by Bret Harte; John Fiske's 'Discovery of America'; 'A Golden Gossip,' by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney; and 'Roger Hunt,' a story by Mrs. Celia P. Woolley, are forthcoming publications of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

As pertinent to the approaching Columbian Exposition, A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will bring out a new 12mo edition of Joel Barlow's epic, the 'Columbiad.' Mr. Charles Burr Todd, Barlow's biographer, will contribute a critical sketch of the poet.

Charles H. Sergel & Co., Chicago, announce a series of histories of the Spanish-American Republics, beginning next month with Peru, by Clements R. Markham. Brazil has been assigned to W. E. Curtis, and the Argentine Republic to the author of 'An Earnest Trifler.'

Dr. L. H. Mills's edition of the 'Gâtha Ahunavaiti,' with the Zend, Pahlavi, Sanskrit, and Persian texts (the first three translated), is now in type and will soon be issued; also the 'Commentary on all the Gâthas.' A very large discount will be made to clergymen and to scholars applying directly to the author at No. 19 Norham Road, Oxford. The importance of the subject to the history of Scriptural doctrines may be learned from Canon Cheyne's article in the *Nineteenth Century Review* for December, 1891.

Methuen & Co., London, are about to issue in six or eight volumes an authorized edition of the 'Speeches and Public Addresses of the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, M. P.,' with notes and introductions, edited by A. W. Hutton, Librarian of the Gladstone Library, and H. J. Cohen. The collection will, of course, be not complete but merely representative. It will in size be uniform with Prof. Thorold Rogers's edition of Mr. Bright's Speeches, and each volume will contain a portrait of Mr. Gladstone. It is hoped that the first volume may be ready in July. The work will be issued to subscribers.

An interesting example of the way the higher criticism is coming to be put into forms to be understanded of the common people is furnished in the 'Genesis of Genesis,' by the Rev. B. W. Bacon (Hartford: *Student* Publishing Co.). Not quite half the book is taken up with a discussion of the methods of historical criticism and documentary analysis, and with an account of the harmony of the leading authorities as respects the main points, and then comes a graphic representation of results as arrived at in the book of Genesis; the various documents being shown in their juncture and overlapping by the use of different type. Prof. G. F. Moore contributes a brief but sympathetic introduction.

Three volumes of poems, one of Medical Essays, and one, 'Our Hundred Days in Europe,' complete the baker's dozen that form the handsome new Riverside Edition of Dr. O. W. Holmes's Writings (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). Only to the Medical Essays has the author thought it worth while to give a new preface, but this is a third. Dr. Holmes sticks to his guns in regard to homœopathy, and thinks he sees it in danger of being swallowed up by its logical progeny, Christian Science and faith cure. On the other hand, he repeats his acknowledgment of the good accomplishing by reducing the heavy drugging of the old school. The final volume is provided with an index to the thirteen, filling nearly 100 pages, for which Dr. Holmes's admirers will be duly grateful.

In addition to the volume of Poems, already

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noticed by us under their proper rubric, the Brantwood Edition of Ruskin's Works (Chas. E. Merrill & Co.) has been advanced with 'Munera Pulveris' and 'The Queen of the Air.' Prof. Norton's introduction to the first is a sort of reconciliation of Ruskin's "political economy" with the genuine article by explaining their absolute lack of identity, and is both an ingenious, a truthful, and a charitable apology. The like friendly service for the medley, 'The Queen of the Air,' is also noticeable for its ingenuity, and there are again several piquant extracts from private letters of Ruskin's which dispense Prof. Norton from saying a good deal, or from bearing on.

A. C. McClurg & Co. have brought out a new edition of Sir Joshua Reynolds's 'Discourses,' edited with notes and an historical and biographical introduction by Edward Gilpin Johnson, and illustrated with twenty half-tone reproductions from Sir Joshua's own pictures, which form a curious commentary on the text. Sir Joshua's theories of generalization and the "grand style" are of the eighteenth century, and are very much shop-worn and out of date at present; but he was a painter as well as a theorist, and his discourses are full of shrewd remarks and admirable advice. The struggle in him of temperament with education—of the painter's love for the concrete and the particular with the philosopher's theoretical admiration for the abstract and the general—makes him very interesting reading, and, perhaps, not unprofitable, at this day, when his misunderstanding of Michael Angelo, Raphael, and the Greeks can do little harm, and may serve to interest the art student in those immortal masterpieces which innumerable modern "movements" are too likely to push out of our sight. The introduction and notes are sufficient, and the book is neatly printed.

In 'Nature in Books' (London: Methuen), Mr. P. Anderson Graham has undertaken, under a somewhat misleading title, to trace the early formative influences which went to the making of Jefferies, Tennyson, Thoreau, Scott, Carlyle, Burns, and Wordsworth. In two cases at least (Tennyson and Carlyle) he is forced to admit that books had a greater moulding power than nature. His essay is a curious combination of discursiveness and vigor, and from its main literary judgments there is little reason to dissent; the author often throws out an *obiter* of singular perverseness. On the whole, these studies in biography are to be commended.

Prof. Basil Hall Chamberlain, who is about to take a year's leave of absence from his duties as Professor of Japanese Literature and Philology in the Tokio University, has just issued the second and revised and enlarged edition of his invaluable 'Things Japanese.' About twenty-five new articles appear in the work.

Ohm's 'Galvanic Circuit Investigated Mathematically' has just been republished in the Van Nostrand pocket Science Series. Mr. Thomas D. Lockwood furnishes an introduction, from which it is to be inferred that the present translation, by William Francis, is new, and there has been but one other, now not easy to procure.

Mr. Fred. A. Ober's 'Knockabout Club on the Spanish Main' (Boston: Estes & Lauriat) takes his youthful readers to Venezuela—a land of mystery, romance, or adventure, from the time when the eager Spaniards first listened to the fable of El Dorado down to the present time. This book contains a good deal of interesting information about Bolivar's country not elsewhere, so far as we know, to be had, at any rate in a form likely to entertain boys; and this, eked out with some account of the buccaneers, and a description of the little-known island of Curaçao, makes up the volume. Mr. Ober's style would be improved if he studied simplicity more and made less effort to be humorous. He no doubt would reply to this that he knows his market and supplies the demand.

In our late mention of the newest bound volumes of *Scribner's Magazine* we might well have spoken of the Index to volumes i.-x., already on our table. The editor takes occasion to pass in summary review the contributions of the decade, both literary and pictorial, with a degree of satisfaction which nobody will find excessive. The index is in two sections—Articles and Authors, and Illustrators (not engravers, except author-engravers). The latter is a just and useful innovation.

That the Germans are great book-writers and readers, but very poor buyers, is a well-known fact, which is again brought home by a recent showing in the Berlin *Boersen-Courier* that even fame or notoriety is not such an aid in the sale of books as it is in other countries. It seems that, some time before Bismarck's dismissal, the publishers H. Fried & Co. made a compilation of Bismarck's speeches and letters and printed them in several volumes as 'Prinz Bismarck's Gesammelte Schriften.' Orders came in briskly from the booksellers, and a third of the large edition was bespoken before the first volume appeared. Then came the Chancellor's fall, the demand ceased at once, and in the twenty-one months following not a hundred copies were sold, although the price had been reduced to $1 a volume. The publishers are now offering for sale the plates and the 3,000 volumes remaining on their hands.

The *Overland Monthly* begins in the January number a series of communications from the Lick Observatory. The first article relates to lunar photography, and the work of the Drapers, father and son, Bond, Rutherfurd, and others is instanced. Fairly good process-cuts are given of three photographs of the moon taken with the great telescope in 1888 and 1890. Those who own small telescopes will find it interesting to compare these plates with the veritable moon. With the idea of securing a pair of satisfactory negatives at intervals of a few hours throughout a whole lunation, the taking of moon-pictures has been made a part of the regular routine work at Mount Hamilton. From time to time changes on the lunar surface have been reported, but very few of them can be considered as established. They largely arise from simple alterations in the aspect of a crater or other formation due to alterations in the shadows. A fine series of lunar photographs must obviously afford the ultimate decision in all such cases. It is unfortunate that the photographic plate cannot be appealed to for a ruling on such anomalous observations as those published from the Lick Observatory which have suggested a real duplicity of the inner satellite of Jupiter. This very improbable condition of things makes it wise to adopt, for the present at least, that explanation of the observed phenomena which assigns the apparent duplicity to mere contrast of the background upon which the satellite was projected.

Mr. Lawrence Rotch, of the Blue Hill (Mass.) Meteorological Observatory, in summarizing the records of the last month, finds that its temperature was exceptionally high—higher, in fact, than that of any December in more than eight years. Sunshine was much in excess of the usual amount, and the neighboring ponds were mostly free from ice during the month. Summarizing for the entire year, it is found that the average temperature and pressure were both higher than for many years; also, there was a smaller number of rainy days and a greater frequency of southwest winds than the average. Other noteworthy phenomena of the year were the exceptionally high humidities and an excess of rainfall in January and February, the heat of mid-June, a cool July, an exceptionally warm September, a dry autumn, and a fall of three inches of snow in October. In central New England the present winter has been remarkable for a practically entire absence of snow until the 6th of January.

Lewis Bohn, Milwaukee, expects to issue in mid-April a quarterly classified Bibliography, bearing his name, "of all new publications in the English language," together with announcements of forthcoming works.

The voluminous 'Official Records of the Union and Confederate Armies' still in progress has just begun to be illustrated by an Atlas, of which Part I. has been issued by the War Department. It is published in folio, and contains five double-page plates, beginning with Capt. (afterwards General) Seymour's sketches of the Confederate batteries built or manned for the reduction of Fort Sumter in February, 1861. These are succeeded by sketches of Rich Mountain battlefield, W. Va., of Bull Run, and Manassas, of Belmont, Mo., the defences of Charleston harbor, etc., etc. Some of these are official, by engineers; others, memoranda from observation or hearsay. The execution of these maps needs no praise. They have been made by Julius Bien & Co. of this city.

The Royal Geographical Society has just issued a circular in reference to the confusion in British maps with regard to the spelling of geographical names, and advocating the adoption of an arbitrary system of orthography. The general principle proposed by the Society in 1885 is again stated, "that in writing geographical native names vowels should have their Italian significance, and consonants that which they have in the English language." This principle has been adopted in the charts and maps issued by the Admiralty and War Office, and has been accepted by the Foreign and Colonial Offices. "Even more important, however, than these adhesions is the recent action" of the United States Government in the adoption of a system in close conformity with that of the Society. France and Germany, it is added, have both formulated similar systems of orthography for foreign words. In order that the principle may be thoroughly understood by travellers and others interested, it is proposed to publish some tentative indexes of a few regions, in which the place names will be recorded in the accepted form.

Not long ago we drew attention to the fact that the Bishop of Guiana, Dr. Austin, had entered upon the fiftieth year of his episcopate. The remarkable fact, that down in South America a clergyman of the Anglican Communion had for so long a time been the Bishop of one and the same diocese, did not pass unobserved in the Old World, and telegrams of congratulation were sent to the venerable prelate by the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Secretary of State for the Colonies. Now, Queen Victoria has just honored the Bishop, who is also Primate of the West Indies, by appointing him to be Prelate of the Order of St. Michael and St. George—the Order of Knighthood reserved for the Colonial and Diplomatic Services. We may mention, by the way, that Bishop Whipple of Minnesota and the Bishop of Missouri have sent contributions towards

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the Building Fund of the Cathedral at Georgetown, British Guiana, wherein it is hoped the Bishop of Guiana will celebrate his Jubilee on the 24th of August next.

By an oversight, we credited last week to the wrong firm the American publication of Collingwood's 'Art Teaching of Ruskin.' We should have given the name of the Messrs. Putnam.

—The alleged "Daily Prayers" of Washington are reproduced in facsimile in the first issue of the *Beacon*, a magazine devoted to "religion, literature, and the reproduction of rare manuscripts." Dr. Deems has very amiably written an essay on the prayers, and the owner of the MS., a dealer in autographs, contributes a very touching picture of Washington "in the pleasant library at Mount Vernon, kneeling at a chair surrounded by his family and household slaves, reading aloud in impressive cadences the beautiful language of these prayers." Of course, some attempt is made to determine the date of composition, for that is an essential point in establishing the authenticity of the MS. The legend of the catalogue is vamped for the purpose, and the prayers are said to have been written between 1750 and 1756, and to have been used by Washington in camp during the French and Indian war. Note the judicial opinion of Dr. Deems: "It [the MS.] is manifestly in the handwriting of George Washington. Compared with another MS., a paper containing the plot and measurements of a certain piece of waste land surveyed for Maj. Lawrence Washington, and which was made and signed by 'G. Washington,' and by him dated August 23, 1750, I am inclined to believe that the prayers were written in Washington's early life, probably about the time he started on the military expedition to western Virginia in 1754." And the authority of "one of his aids, Col. B. Temple," is quoted on the use of prayers in camp.

—This evidence is utterly worthless. In a single collection of Washington MSS., we have his copy-book, 1745; his notes of a journey, 1747; surveys, 1749–1750; his commercial correspondence and his letters during the Bouquet expedition—an almost unbroken series, by which we may judge accurately what changes occurred in his script. In no case is there the least resemblance to the script of the "Daily Prayers." Further, all of Washington's papers were captured at Fort Necessity, and so these prayers could not have been with him in his first campaign. As to the second campaign, the definite character assumed at that time by Washington's writing rules the prayers out, as there is no resemblance to be traced save in the single word *amen*. When Col. Benjamin Temple was obtained as an "aid," history saith not. He was not on the rolls of the troops serving in the French and Indian War; he never was an aid to Washington. In 1778 he was in Virginia to superintend the clothing of a regiment then being raised, and his delay in accomplishing that task brought down upon him some criticisms from headquarters; but there is not the slightest evidence of his having had any of Washington's confidence. A comparison of a letter of Judge Bushrod Washington with the MS. of the prayers would have raised the question whether he, or his father, was not the writer. The similarity in penmanship is striking, and far greater than can be established between any writing of George Washington and that of the prayers.

—That eminent English physicist, Lord Rayleigh, reviewing in a recent number of *Nature* Prof. Langley's 'Experiments in Aerodynamics,' directs attention to the work of early authorities, among them Newton and John Robison in his 'System of Mechanical Philosophy,' the latter of whom enunciated what is known as the law of the simple sine, the immense importance of which was clearly recognized by Wenham in a valuable paper upon flight in the Report of the Aeronautical Society for 1866. Some years later, Mr. W. Froude, the greatest authority upon kindred matters, discussed the whole subject with characteristic insight and lucidity. The laws of resistance, says Lord Rayleigh, were fairly well established many years ago, at least in their main outlines. The chief problem is, of course, the law of obliquity; and this Prof. Langley has attacked with two distinct forms of apparatus, which are beyond the scope of our present writing. When once the law of obliquities is known, the problem of aerial maintenance presents no further theoretical difficulty. It was successfully treated many years ago by Penaud (Aeronautical Society, 1876), and later by Froude. Lord Rayleigh thinks the work of Penaud so little known that he proceeds to recapitulate some of his theoretical conclusions. Penaud actually constructed a successful flying-machine, in which horizontal flight was maintained by a screw-propeller; the energy being stored by means of stretched india-rubber. The principle of the rocket, Lord Rayleigh says, may perhaps be employed with advantage, and even upon a large scale the abolition of all machinery would allow of considerable extravagance in the use of explosive material. While interested to note the coincidence of Langley's favorable view of the practicability of flight upon a large scale, with the conviction of Penaud expressed fifteen years ago, Lord Rayleigh concludes without undue reserve that "sufficient maintaining power is not the only requisite, and it is probable that difficulties connected with stability and with safe alighting at the termination of the adventure will exercise to the utmost the skill of our inventors." Just here the *Cosmopolitan* magazine of this city steps in with an offer of $500 in prizes for three essays upon aerial navigation. As to what may grow out of them, Mr. Edison has offered the free use of his laboratory for experiment; Capt. Haupt, Professor of Engineering at the University of Pennsylvania, is to supervise the engineer's work and the mechanical construction, while Prof. King, probably the most experienced of living aeronauts, has been engaged as adviser in practical aeronautics. Plans and suggestions will be welcomed from all sources, and no effort spared to combat the recognized difficulties of the experiment. It is worthy of further note that no patents are in contemplation, but that the results are to be public property. The essays must reach the magazine by March 1 of this year.

—In Europe, where the custom of giving fees would seem to be indissolubly bound up with the whole framework of society, the feeling has nevertheless gained ground that it is both necessary and possible to put a stop to it. Baedeker, in the latest edition of his 'Switzerland,' says that in that country the practice has become a "monstrosity," and that it is a serious interference with the pleasure of the traveller. At the meeting of the International Innkeepers' Union held at Cologne last month, it was unanimously recognized that, in the interest of the traveller, and no less in the interest of the innkeeper, on account of the dislike of him which it excites in the traveller's breast, the custom must be broken up; and three hours were devoted to a thorough discussion of the best means by which this could be effected. There can be no doubt that the abolition of the custom would be effective in increasing the amount of travelling that takes place. No one, of course, consciously renounces travelling on account of the irksomeness of deciding at each hotel, in regard to porters, waiters, chambermaids, and bootblacks, to just how many of each and to just what extent conscience requires him to practise generosity. But no principle is better established in modern science than that causes which are too weak to be appreciable in any one instance are, nevertheless, effective in the long run. No one thinks, when he sits down in the spring to consider whether he shall make a journey to Switzerland or store up the money which it would cost against the necessities of old age, of the disagreeableness of giving fees; but in the general, vague picture of the pleasantness of the journey which arises before him, no one can tell just what part is played by that element of the situation, and the intending traveller himself least of all. In other words, we have here a picture in little of the statistical effectiveness of small causes—a principle which has been so effective in modern physics, and which the political economist still finds it so difficult to get a firm grip of. The hotel-keepers are doubtless right in thinking the traveller would not only be happier, but also more of a traveller, if he were relieved of the burden of paying fees.

—If rhyming were not one of the primary instincts of human nature, and if Dr. Daniel Sanders, besides being the author of more than one admirable German dictionary, were not also a human being, one might be surprised to see him, at the venerable age of more than threescore and ten, risk his reputation by publishing a collection of original verses. The title of the volume in question, '366 Sprüche' (Leipzig: Ernst Keil's Nachfolger), seems to indicate that it is meant to offer a grain of wisdom for each day of the year. But we cannot help thinking that most readers will prefer swallowing the whole pill at one dose, especially since the absolutely harmless nature of its ingredients deprives it of all possible danger to normal digestion and sleep. Even where the writer (as is frequently the case) exposes human frailties and follies, he does it in such a manner as to offend none but the æsthetic sense, and some of the *Sprüche* display such a monumental commonplaceness that they seem to have been designed as inscriptions for public buildings. How would this, for instance, do for a City Hall?

"Die Ehrlichkeit
Ist zuweilen nicht ohne Beschwerlichkeit;
Dagegen ohne Gefährlichkeit
Ist niemals die Unehrlichkeit."

Or this for a Y. M. C. A. building?

"Den stummen Fischen und quakenden Fröschen
Genüg' es, den Durst im Wasser zu löschen;
Doch begeisterten Menschen, die singen können,
Ist der Wein als begeisternder Trunk zu gönnen."

Or this for the future monument of William II. of Germany?

"Wenn dünkels- und anmassungsvoll
Zu hoch sich stellet Einer,
Erscheint er dem Beschauer nur
Dafür um desto kleiner."

—A memorial of the late Dr. von Holtzendorff contemplates a fund with which to advance the science of criminal law, and the knowledge of all that concerns prisons, by proposing prize questions, by affording the means for travelling, and other methods of carrying forward the investigations and labors of Holt-

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zendorff's long life. The headquarters of the association are to be in Berlin, and the governing body is to be composed of the representatives of thirteen societies, viz.: the International Criminal Law Association, the International Commission Pénitentiaire, the Institut de Droit International, the Deutscher Juristentag, the Paris Société Générale des Prisons and Société de Législation Comparée, the Brussels Société des Études Sociales, the Juristische Gesellschaft of Berlin and of Munich, the London Howard Association, the National Prison Association of the United States, the Congress of Dutch Jurists, and the Congress of Scandinavian Jurists. The right is reserved of adding representatives of kindred associations. There is also a small committee of three subscribers to be chosen to coöperate with the representative members. The Fund is to be obtained by donations and subscriptions, both from individuals and from societies, and it is to be expended by the Board in the way best calculated to forward the main purpose of the organization, to honor and perpetuate the memory and services of Prof. von Holtzendorff by just such methods of investigating and improving criminal law and prisons as he followed with so much advantage during his long and busy life. Thus far the American subscribers form a very small proportion of the one hundred and fifty or more names representing the leading European authorities. Holtzendorff had many American students and correspondents, and those who wish to join in this memorial or to ascertain its conditions can do so by addressing Prof. Rosenfeld, Halle. The Treasurer is Mr. Ferdinand Reichenheim, Thiergartenstrasse 10, Berlin W.

KENNAN'S SIBERIA.—I.

Siberia and the Exile System. By George Kennan. The Century Co. 1891.

Under the above title Mr. Kennan has collected, in two bulky volumes, the articles which have appeared in the *Century Magazine* at intervals during the last four years. Any one who has read those articles consecutively is already practically acquainted with the contents of the book. A few pictures have been omitted; changes, chiefly of arrangement, have been made in one or two of the papers; the matter remains undisturbed. The series of papers on the prisons of European Russia have been omitted, and the space which they would have occupied is taken up with appendices devoted to special points: a list of the books, documents, and so forth, on the Siberian question consulted; a list of reprimands and the like inflicted on the Russian press by the Censorship during the last ten years; revolutionary documents; laws and orders of the Government with regard to political offences and offenders; letters from Mr. de Windt on the Tomsk forwarding prison and the author's replies; reports on Siberian prisons culled from Siberian newspapers and other public sources; reports from the Governor of Eastern Siberia to the Tzar.

The first thing which strikes the ordinary reader is the delightful and graphic style in which the book is written. Nothing could be better. It takes somewhat deeper knowledge and observation to appreciate another quality, viz., the art with which the omission of what is not desired is concealed. It is the commonest of practices to state only one side of a question, but the knack of doing so in a manner which shall leave the reader utterly unconscious that another side exists, is a rare gift. In his preface, the author states that he had been interested in the subject of Siberian exile since 1879, and had planned a journey of exploration. In 1884 he was enabled to make a preliminary trip to St. Petersburg and Moscow, "for the purpose of collecting material and ascertaining whether or not obstacles were likely to be thrown in his way by the Russian Government." In 1882 he had spoken approvingly of the Russian Government, and he found this of great assistance to him. In 1885 the projected exploration was finally begun. The points to be noted with regard to these facts, mentioned with clever lightness, are as follows: (1) that the nature of Mr. Kennan's preliminary reading between 1879 and 1884 is not stated; (2) that the nature of the material and information secured in his preliminary excursion of 1884 is not stated; (3) that the nature of his feeling in 1882, when he defended the Russian Government, is stated to have been favorable; (4) that the nature of his impressions when he set out on his trip of 1884, when he returned from it, and when he began his exploration with fuller knowledge a year later, is left for the reader to infer—and the inference is expected to be that he set out prejudiced in favor of the authorities, and changed his mind only afterwards. Something of this sort is, in fact, announced later on.

These omissions bear upon the subject in various ways, and Appendix A will aid the unskilled reader in coming to some conclusion as to the spirit in which the expedition was entered on, which has already been the ground of controversy. Among the books there set down as read, quoted from, or consulted (the author has a catalogue of 10,000 numbers, he says), many will be found which date back, not only previous to 1884, but previous to 1879, some even to the extent of forty years. This refers not to the private documents, but to the publications which were for sale openly, and which any one could buy in Russia or Geneva, or could cause to be forwarded from those places. As the author himself makes a point of calling attention in his preface to the fact that more than one-half of his information is derived from official sources, and as he quotes extensively from books, periodicals, and newspapers which are neither rare nor exempt from advertisement, on their appearance, in the prominent newspapers, not to mention the newspapers themselves, we may fairly draw a few inferences from the facts laid before us. One inference is, that even superficial search during the lightly dismissed preliminary journey must have revealed the general character of the evidence which Mr. Kennan was likely to collect, even if it were not already familiar through reading between 1879 and 1884. That it was not wholly a surprise seems probable, from the fact that the author was given the opportunity to make this journey two years after the publication of the Rev. Mr. Lansdell's book, which set forth the rosy view of the matter, and that the final expedition was considered expedient after this preliminary trip, during which preparations were in so advanced a state that five days were reckoned as sufficient to procure letters of introduction—perhaps to make acquaintances also, if the previous trip is to be counted for nothing in the results. It is not usual, to say the least, for wide-awake newspaper men and publishers to enter upon expensive investigation of the same side of a subject which has been so recently set forth by a writer in the same language, unless there is presumptive evidence, amounting to a certainty, that a "surprise" is in store. Reference to Appendix B will convince the reader that, if the very varied list of newspapers and periodicals there mentioned was really compiled from the author's personal reading—which we have every reason to believe is the truth—he did not fail to keep himself duly posted as to Russian publications and doings in the years immediately preceding his journey.

Before entering upon the discussion of these points, however, it may be remarked that the most prominent feature of the narrative, next to its charming style, is the stress laid upon the difficulties of the journey and the sufferings of the author and his companion. An interesting Siberian comment is, that "he has made his sufferings of almost equal magnitude with those of the martyrs whose canonization he is negotiating." This criticism is accompanied by a suggestion that there was no special exhibition of clever cajoling, as represented, in the travellers donning their dress suits and calling on the authorities of each town, as a mark of respect, since, if they had not called on the officials, they would not have obtained the necessary permits; and if they had not donned their dress suits, equally of course, they would not have been received. With the exception of a short journey to the mines of Kará, which their tardy arrival compelled them to make on horseback, the accommodations, vehicles, food and lodgings made use of by the travellers were precisely those employed by all travellers in Siberia. That there was no dearth of such travellers, the author's frequent complaints of interrupted slumbers at the posting-houses afford abundant testimony. Nor do we ever hear that these Russian and Siberian travellers (including women and small babies, and ranging from a General Governor down) murmur at anything except at delay in obtaining horses. There are Siberians who think nothing of running on to St. Petersburg from Irkutsk, with the same conveniences or inconveniences, once or twice a year, for a visit of a couple of months. If the author and his companion preferred to carry about a photographic apparatus and forty pounds of documents, instead of the usual portable travelling mattress to spread over the baggage in the bottom of the *tarantás*, and an adequate supply of food, it is a case of choice for which sympathy can hardly be demanded.

As a contrast to these tales of woe, the reader may be interested to know the unphilanthropic, unbusinesslike view of the same subject taken by one of these lady travellers: "We were seven weeks on the way [to Eastern Siberia], and we travelled night and day, with no special fatigue or hunger (though we had little to eat), nor cold (though the degrees of frost were unusually low). One could even sleep, and it seemed as though the feast of fresh air made up for everything." This relates to a mid-winter journey, in January and February. Of another journey in May, during the breaking up of the frost, at the worst season of the year, the same lady says: "We travelled on day and night, when possible, being stopped only two or three times during the four or five darkest hours of the night. No moon; we had wind, rain, snow, and cold; then fine sun and air, and we enjoyed it all. It is, to my mind, the next best way to travelling after a sea voyage."

The minute description of the way in which Mr. Kennan, a man of exceptionally hardy frame, bore the common inflictions of lodgings without beds, poor and scanty food, insufficient clothing, and cold (the Siberians are unable to understand his accounts of shivering for hours with impunity, since people who are not properly protected freeze before they know it),

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serves to illustrate the lesson which any reader can apply himself, if the key-word be once supplied; and that key-word concerns the nature of the people who are found in the forwarding prisons and the *étapes*.

Mr. Kennan shows, from official records, that the number of purely political prisoners sent to Siberia each year by "administrative process"—that is, without trial—is, on an average, 125. Allowing twenty-five more per annum as the approximate number of politicals sent as hard-labor convicts and penal colonists, probably for direct violence, murder, robbing sub-treasuries, and other acts universally recognized as deserving of punishment, it appears that a little less than one per cent. of the total number of exiles belong to the political class. In other words, less than one per cent. of exiles belong to the educated classes, who are in any measure accustomed to the comforts of life. Only a very small fraction of this one per cent. have, according to the evidence offered, belonged to the ranks of life or the conditions of fortune in which their physical comforts have been sufficiently great to cause the physical hardships of exile to weigh upon them in the degree which would seem to be natural to the ordinary reader. One need go no further than Dostoevsky's realistic novel, 'Crime and Punishment,' to become convinced that not alone students like the hero of this tale are inured to suffering, but that their life in Siberia might even be an improvement on their life in Russia, except so far as deprivation of books and writing-materials is concerned. The majority of the political exiles are shown to come, if not from the student class, from other classes which are practically similar in the matter of comfort and surroundings. The word "student" in Russia by no means conveys the ideas of luxury, sports, pleasure, and personal elegance which have come to be associated with it in England and America. Many of these noble and courageous fellows deserve the crowns of heroes or martyrs for their endurance of privations in their effort to obtain that education which the privileged classes receive gratuitously in many cases.

After deducting this fraction of one per cent. for the political exiles, we find that nearly 4,000 out of the remaining 99 per cent. of the yearly 10,000 consist of persons banished by administrative order of village communes—not by the Government—because of their general worthlessness and bad conduct, and because they are obnoxious to their fellow-citizens and a burden to society. Out of more than 5,000 exiled by administrative process, by a mere order of the Minister of the Interior, some are furnished by these very peasants who have been exiled by their communes, and whom their communes refuse to receive on the expiration of their term of banishment. Naturally, the majority of the convicts who have had a trial come from the same classes, though some spring from the middle classes and the aristocracy, like the lawyers who conspire to obtain fraudulent divorces, or rob their clients, and like the Count and his accomplices who get money under false pretences—all of which are cases of recent occurrence. However, it is not worth while to consider them separately, since their own deeds have deprived them of privileges and rank.

Practically, then, the vast majority of exiles belongs to the peasant class. This division into two distinct classes, with subdivisions, becomes of importance when our attention is repeatedly called to the absence of bedclothing and pillows in the *kámeras* of the *étapes* and forwarding prisons, to the few changes of raiment, to insects, bad ventilation, and other details not in keeping with Western ideas of life's commonest necessities. These peasants are not accustomed to beds, bedding, or pillows at home; they sleep on the floor, on the bench along the wall, on the oven, in their ordinary clothes. Their changes of clothing at home are rarely greater than in prison; the presence of baths in the prisons would seem to indicate that they have something like the same facilities for their weekly baths as at home. The amount of fresh air which they can endure out-of doors, and the amount which they can dispense with in the house anywhere, are astonishing. The sanitary conditions at home are probably not much superior to those which they enjoy in prison. The food is probably as good, plentiful, and regular as they have at home—more regular in some cases, no doubt. The forced marches of this class of prisoners can hardly be considered as the extreme of barbarity in itself, since the guards do the same amount, and the chances are that if they were not engaged in tramping from west to east in Siberia, many of them would be tramping north and south, throughout the whole length of Russia, in all weathers, under the guise of pious pilgrimages, to numerous shrines, and subsisting on the spasmodic and precarious charity of the villagers—if they were not engaged in some more reprehensible occupation calling for condemnation. The practice of the *brodyágs*, the runaway prisoners, who pass the summers, with or without leave, in roaming the forests and picking up their living by chance, at the prompting of their Russian blood, returning to prison for the winters, or allowing themselves to be captured, affords confirmation of this assertion. It is difficult to see how bedding could be provided for such masses, constantly changing, or how it could fail, under the circumstances, to add to the insects and unhealthy conditions. In the posting-houses, lodgings, and all the hotels visited by the author (except one or two in large cities), he and all other travellers slept on the floor, omitted ablutions, and had not even the luxury of prison *nári*. It is the modern version of the old Russian idea of luxury, which caused grandees to scorn other people's beds, sheets, provisions, and cooking, and to carry their own paraphernalia and retinue with them. The same idea obtains in some parts of European Russia still.

Other matters which must be taken into consideration are the Russian constitution and the Russian temperament. The former is robust, to put it mildly; the latter is a worthy match for it. These tough-fibred Russians have a way of accepting the inevitable promptly, cheerfully, almost unquestioningly, which, combined with a mystical belief that suffering is a good thing in itself, their native habits, and their normal life, causes the actual amount of misery which they endure to be less than a tithe of what the uninitiated reader would imagine from the harrowing descriptions given by Mr. Kennan, unrelieved by these very important factors in the question. If he did not set out with the intention to see everything in the blackest possible light, why was no hint of these matters given?

RUBINSTEIN ON OTHER COMPOSERS.

Die Musik und ihre Meister. Von Anton Rubinstein. Leipzig: B. Senff. Pp. 153.

THIS little book is the sensation of the hour in Germany. Great composers are expected in our times to write not only scores but books as well. The writings of Berlioz, Schumann, Liszt, Wagner, and others fill many volumes, but Rubinstein had not hitherto made any contributions to literature, excepting a few short essays, and the brief autobiography which appeared about a year ago—and even this was only an interview, edited, however, by the composer, and therefore authentic. But now we have a genuine book from Rubinstein's own pen, which has fallen like a bombshell into two camps at once—that of the worshippers of Handel, Haydn, and Mozart on the one side, and that of the followers of Wagner, Liszt, and Berlioz on the other.

The whole book is in the form of an imaginary dialogue between the composer and a lady who visits him at his villa in Peterhof. She finds his walls adorned with busts of Bach, Beethoven, Schubert, Chopin, and Glinka, and asks surprisedly why Handel, Haydn, and Mozart are not also there. "These are the representatives of my art whom I most revere," is the answer; and in the sequel the reasons for this preference are given in clear and emphatic terms. Having thus "paralyzed" the admirers of the three masters excluded from the first rank of composers, he aims his next blow at the lovers of opera. Mozart's greatness as an opera composer does not save him, for "in my opinion opera is an inferior species of music, anyway," and if the public prefers opera to symphony, that is "because it understands the opera more easily." Then follows an interesting bird's-eye view of the development of music. It leads up to what a sporting writer would call the "heaviest slugging" in the whole book, and the victims of it are Wagner, Liszt, Berlioz and—*all other modern composers after Chopin!*

It has long been known that Rubinstein detested Wagner and did not believe in any of his reforms and innovations in music, nor ever follow them in practice. If any doubts had remained on this point, they would be emphatically set at rest by his remarks on pages 95–105, where we are told that Wagner is "highly interesting, very valuable; but beautiful or great in his works, or deep or high in a specifically musical sense, he is *not*." "His art-principles are so unsympathetic to me that my opinion of him can only serve to provoke your anger." Then he picks to pieces each of Wagner's principles. Wagner puts vocal music above everything, while with Rubinstein "music begins only where words cease." Legend leaves Rubinstein cold. An example of real drama, in his opinion, is to "compel a man to shoot an apple from his son's head." "The leading-motive principle is such a naïve procedure that it cannot claim serious consideration, but produces rather a comic effect"(!). The exclusion of arias and ensembles from opera is a mistake. The orchestra is too much of a good thing, because it diminishes the interest in the vocal part. The use of steam to conceal a change of scene is *intolerable*. The darkening of the auditorium is only a caprice, not an æsthetic requisition, and benefits chiefly the managers by saving gas! The personages in Wagner's dramas are always pathetic, never dramatic (!); there is "no diversity of musical characterization"; "in no case does the melody, the musical thought, characterize the person" (!). And so on, the conclusion being that Wagner cannot be classed among real musicians.

These remarks of Rubinstein are extremely interesting from a sociological point of view. They might be printed as an appendix to Wagner's pamphlet on 'Judaism in Music,' as brilliant proof of his contention that the Jews lack

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the dramatic sense. Rubinstein has written almost as many operas as Wagner, but not one of them has won a permanent success on the stage, although many attempts have been made. Wagner's, on the other hand, have slowly but surely conquered the world, and are sung more than a thousand times a year. They have succeeded because they are dramatic, and Rubinstein's have failed because they are undramatic. Meyerbeer, though a Jew, succeeded as an opera-composer because he was willing to learn from other dramatic composers. Had Rubinstein been willing to learn from Wagner, he, too, might have succeeded on the stage, for the time being, at any rate; but his stubbornness and his undramatic instincts prevented him from doing so. And now that he sees his utter failure as an opera-composer, instead of honestly admitting his mistake, he makes a weak exposure of his irritation by attacking Wagner and those dramatic principles which have not only won over the whole musical world, but have leavened all modern music. He has every reason, personally, to detest Wagner, for if Wagner had not taught the world to expect dramatic truthfulness in an opera besides beautiful music, Rubinstein would no doubt have been the hero of our operatic world, instead of being nobody in it.

One cannot help noticing the difference between the two men in nobility of artistic character: Wagner believes that dramatic (vocal) music is the highest of arts, and he clings to his ideal through life against a thousand obstacles; Rubinstein writes almost as many operas as Wagner, but as they prove failures he discovers (after he has passed his sixty-second birthday) that the opera is "an inferior kind of music anyway," and if Wagner succeeded in monopolizing almost the whole musical attention with his operas, this only proves that all his principles are wrong, his music bad, and the musical public a lot of ignoramuses who prefer opera to symphony because "opera is more easily understood." And in conclusion he further shows his lack of a sense of humor by prophesying that time will "judge" these music dramas, although he must have known that Schumann (also undramatic and jealous) made the same prophecy more than forty years ago, since which time these operas have steadily advanced in universal estimation, although not one opera in a hundred ordinarily survives a decade.

It is a great pity that Rubinstein has marred his book by these ill-tempered remarks on the opera and on Wagner, because it is to be feared that they will prevent some of the other judgments in it from having any effect at all. Amateurs will naturally distrust a critic who can not only find no good in Wagner, Liszt, and Berlioz, whom he calls the leaders of the modern epoch in music, but can see nothing original in Franz, Brahms, Dvorák, Grieg, Tchaikowsky, Verdi, Gounod, etc., all of whom he sweeps out of existence with a stroke of the pen by his iterated assertion that "music came to an end with Schumann and Chopin."

Fortunately, in his judgment of the dead, where his bitterness over his personal failure as a composer does not cloud his vision (and it must be admitted that Rubinstein has not received a hundredth part of the honor he deserves as a creator), not only is he trustworthy, but he also does excellent work by rearranging the busts of composers, putting some on higher pedestals, others on lower ones. Placing Glinka among the five greatest composers is, of course, a bit of patriotic arbitrariness which none but a Russian will approve; but in putting Schubert and Chopin in the first rank of composers, and Handel, Haydn, and Mozart in the second, Rubinstein has done a most valuable service, all the more as he gives convincing reasons for this rearrangement of reputations. For half a century and more, historians and critics have parroted certain opinions without ever questioning their correctness. Rubinstein's bombshell will stimulate thought, and demonstrate that if absolute originality is to be taken as a measure of genius, Schubert and Chopin must be placed in the very front rank. We regret that no space remains for quotations, but the book (which Rubinstein himself wrote both in Russian and in German) has already been translated into English, and every one interested will read it himself. We will only add, therefore, that, besides the topics already touched upon, many others are briefly discussed, such as woman's failure as a composer, the utility of conservatories, the value of programme music, prodigies, editions of the classics, great pianists, the arrangement of the orchestra, church music, etc. There are also many admirable incidental remarks on famous pieces, as on the absurdity of calling a certain piece of Beethoven's "The Moonlight Sonata," and the author's brief "programme" for the movement in Chopin's sonata which follows the funeral march, and which, a chaotic mystery otherwise, gains a thrilling significance when we look on it, with Rubinstein, as "the midnight sighing of the wind over the graves in the cemetery." Nor can we refrain from noting with some personal satisfaction that Rubinstein puts Chopin above all other composers for the piano, and calls the collection of Preludes "the pearl of his works"—which agrees with a preference expressed in the *Nation* many years ago for Chopin's Preludes if by any chance all piano-forte music in the world excepting one volume were to be destroyed.

TWO BOOKS BY PROF. SHALER.

Nature and Man in America. By N. S. Shaler, Professor of Geology in Harvard University. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

The Story of Our Continent: A Reader in the Geography and Geology of North America for the Use of Schools. By N. S. Shaler. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1891.

In striking contrast to most of the popular books on geological subjects of one or two decades since, in which the author was apt to take an apologetic attitude towards Nature for fear of wounding the religious prejudices of his readers, Prof. Shaler says frankly, in the opening sentence of the preface to his 'Nature and Man in America,' "Modern Science unhappily appears to be in conflict with the religious traditions of our race." He avoids, however, a flippant attitude towards religion. He speaks in a certain tone of regret of the destruction of many of our ancient ideals, but believes that the study of nature can and will do much to replace that which it has overthrown.

"Half a century ago," he says, "Science appeared as the destroyer of faith and trust in the universe. It seems to me that we are now approaching the time when our knowledge will reaffirm the old belief which our fathers had in the essential control of a beneficent Providence. With each advance in our knowledge concerning the conditions which have brought men to their present state, we come to a fuller sense as to the order and system by which the processes of Nature have made men what they are. There is reason to hope that the faith of our children may be like that of our fathers—better, indeed, than the old faith, for it will rest on the firm foundations of our knowledge, rather than on the trust in the opinion of our elders."

His book is an admirable exposition of the latest views of modern science on the relations of organic life to its environment, treated not in the systematic and to many somewhat dry method of scientific treatises, but in the easy and charmingly colloquial style of which he is so easily the master. While his facts are drawn freely from the results of the work of others, a very important portion of the interesting and often singularly ingenious conclusions are undoubtedly his own, and possibly would not be subscribed to without reserve by all geologists. In the first half of the book he traces the effects that geological changes and consequent variations in the surface conditions of the earth, or in its geography, have had upon organic life and especially upon the human race. In so doing he gives an epitome of the geological history of our continent and of the underlying causes of its present geographical features. In the second half he speculates upon the political bearing which these features have had upon the development of the race.

Areas isolated by natural features were, before modern methods of transportation had practically destroyed all natural barriers, adapted to be the cradle of permanent and strong races. Europe has been in all time peculiarly divided up into such areas; hence the multiplicity of its political divisions and the fixity of race characteristics of the separate peoples which have inhabited them. North America, on the other hand, is unfitted to be the cradle-place of different peoples—its continent is in the main a geographical unit. As regards the beginning of life, the Americas appear to have been better constituted for the nurture of plant than of animal life. They have contributed but one animal to the domestic uses of civilized man, the wild turkey; while the plants which the New World has afforded, such as tobacco, maize, the potato, and tomato, have been sufficient to make something like a revolution in the economic conditions of our civilization. The human inhabitants of America Shaler regards, on geological as well as geographical and ethnological grounds, as of probable Asiatic provenance. The retrogression of the aboriginal inhabitants of the Mississippi Valley from the advanced conditions shown by the mound-builders to the nomadic habits which characterized them at the advent of the Europeans, he ascribes to an eastward migration of the buffalo, which, by furnishing an easy method of supporting life by hunting, discouraged the more laborious pursuits of agriculture.

Among effects produced by geographical conditions upon the European colonists may be mentioned that, to the isolation of the British between the coast on the east and the practically impassable barriers of the Appalachians on the west, Shaler ascribes the great development of maritime pursuits. As these barriers have been broken down by modern methods, and new fields have thus been thrown open to the enterprising youth of the country, commerce has been more and more neglected. Our author's view of the favorable part played by the African slave trade in the early development of our country is noticeable as advanced by one who, though brought up in the slave-holding region, has been most thoroughly identified with the North during his manhood. For the same reason, he is particularly well qualified to show, as he does, the effect of the soils upon the people living upon them as illustrated in the way in which the inhabitants of the

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border States espoused in some cases the pro-slavery and, in others the anti-slavery cause; and thus brings geology in direct contact with politics.

Reasoning from the same class of causes, he indulges in some interesting speculations as to the future. Canada he regards as destined by nature to become in time a part of our new political system. The idea which has often been advanced, that the Saxon race has physically deteriorated during its stay upon this continent, he considers as unfounded, and brings facts from his own observation during the war to show that the American has greater vitality and endurance than the European. He therefore concludes that our continent is, in its physiographic conditions, well suited for the development of northern Europeans, and that the people which will be developed here will possess those differences which, by their interaction, bring about the advance of the race.

This little book is intended, according to its preface, primarily for beginners in the study of geology; it would seem also to be full of interesting suggestions to the more advanced student, while the peculiar clearness and simplicity of its mode of presentation render it intelligible to the average reader who may not possess a technical knowledge of geology or biology.

'The Story of Our Continent' is another small volume by the same author, characterized far too modestly by its sub-title. It is devoted more exclusively to what might be called the geological and biological history of the geography of our continent, and touches but lightly upon the ethnographical and political speculations found in the first-mentioned volume. In so brief a space, no better exposition could be found of the best methods of the modern geography, which does not content itself, as did the school geographies of our youth, with a barren enumeration of the superficial features of the globe—its mountains, valleys, rivers, and oceans—and a dry statement of its political divisions and the peoples which inhabit them, but seeks the underlying causes of these features. To this end geography is obliged to call upon its sister science, geology, and learn from it the phases in its history to which these various features are due.

It is only within a comparatively recent period that the field of geological research has been sufficiently extended over the more mountainous and inaccessible portions of our continent to enable the geologist to reconstruct a tolerably complete history of its development, and even now there remain many gaps in that history yet to be filled. Mountainous regions form the favorite field of study for the geologist, for there alone the evidences of the critical phases in the orographic history of the globe, the great earth movements, can be detected. Moreover, although the high mountains of the world are, in their present form, of comparatively recent geological age, the mountainous regions have been the most permanent land-masses, and are therefore in one sense the most ancient geographical features of the globe. In the numerous incursions of the sea upon the land, during the earlier epochs of the earth's history, certain portions of these regions have always remained above the water, and from their abrasion have been formed the sediments which, first accumulating as sand or mud in the ocean bottoms, have later been consolidated into the sandstones and limestones which form the greater part of the present surface crust of the earth. These sediments naturally accumulated in greatest thickness near the shore-lines of the land-masses from which they came; hence we find that the geological column is there represented by a thickness of sedimentary rocks many times greater than that found in the great depressions like the Mississippi basin, which are far away from any great mountain uplifts, and which have often been entirely submerged under mediterranean seas. On this fact has been founded one of the most important theories of mountain building, which ascribes the uplifting force to the overloading of the crust in the immediate neighborhood of the mountains, which have been the scene of incessant changes, of constant and almost contemporaneous building up and wearing down. It is by the study of the successive and varied forms of land sculpture produced during these processes of change that modern physical geographers are enabled to trace out the history of the surface features of our land, as has been so admirably done for the river systems of Pennsylvania by Prof. Shaler's colleague, Prof. Wm. M. Davis of Harvard, in a recent memoir which has placed him in the front rank of physical geographers.

Prof. Shaler inclines rather to the biological than the physical side of geography in the little book under consideration, probably because this side has more to attract the attention and interest of the youthful students for whom it is intended. Although it necessarily goes over much of the same ground, it is by no means a repetition of the first-mentioned volume, and, when the same facts are introduced, they are described in a new and generally more detailed manner. The result is not only a model text-book, but one which may be read with interest and profit by a large class of readers whose school days have long since passed.

The Cruikshankian Momus. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

The Humourist. 4 vols. London: John C. Nimmo; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

THE establishing of George Cruikshank as a famous artist, and of his works as classics, is going on apace, and is marked by the appearance of republications of some of his earlier works. Probably these are selected as being the more scarce and inaccessible. His work, from about 1840 to his death, was rather more commonly given to regularly published books, or to well-established periodicals, but before that time a large part of it was, as some of it was always, in the form of broadsides, sheets of caricature, frontispieces for music, and the like. A number of the ballads, songs, and bits of prose satire, published between 1791 and 1846, with frontispieces by George Cruikshank, his father Isaac, and his brother Robert, have been gathered by Mr. Nimmo and published in a large octavo volume, under the title 'The Cruikshankian Momus: Pictorial Broadsides and Humourous Song-Headings.' To bring all the pieces within the size of the page, some of the larger ones have been reduced in size. Thus, the etching to the "Lord of the Manor," No. 455 of Reid's catalogue, was nine and one-half inches long; it is reduced to five and three-fourths inches in the publication before us. They all seem to be process reproductions, perhaps from uncolored copies of the originals, and have all been colored by hand. Each colored plate is accompanied by its original literary matter, but there is no attempt at imitation of the original form. The print is large and clear, the pages uniform; tail-pieces, selected chiefly from George Cruikshank's different works (often much later than the ballads they here adorn), are inserted, and the whole is made into a book as handsome as the queer and fantastic colored pictures would allow.

It is an entertaining book for those who like to revive an epoch seemingly as far in the past as the time of the crusades. The text as well as the pictures will remind a man of fifty of many things that were antiquated, indeed, but still in use, in the days of his youth. Here is George Colman's ballad, "The Barber's Wedding," and his admirable song beginning—

> "One night came on a hurricane,
> The sea was mountains rolling,
> When Barney Buntline turned his quid
> And said to Billy Bowling:
> 'A strong sou'wester's blowing, Bill;
> Hark! don't you hear it roar now?
> Lord help 'em! how I pities all
> Unhappy folks on shore now.'"

And here is "Paddy Carey," which was included in many a collection of "songs and music" half a century ago. There is something that need not be forgotten in these old bits of broad farce, and the pictures are as good as the verses in themselves, and have the additional value of being associated with the whole body of work of him whom the publishers of this book call rightly "the great George."

A publication of greater importance in the same line from the same publisher is 'The Humourist,' a work first published in four volumes, small 12mo, in 1819–'21, now reissued in four much larger volumes, with heavy laid paper and large type. This work is a most extraordinary collection of stories, anecdotes, poems, and verses which are hardly poems, all humorous in intention. Here are the jokes that are scarcely jokes, like this—that Capt. Silk had a good name for a soldier, because "*Silk* can never be *Worsted*." Here are the jokes which are centuries old, like Francis the First's conversation with his jester about Charles the Fifth passing through France; and here are the jokes that come down to us from Greek antiquity, like Agesilaus's remark about the walls of Sparta. As for verses, here are many of those "comic and amusing" selections which the "speech-books" of the school-boy made familiar to the generations that are now gray-haired; here is "The Three Black Crows," certainly an excellent piece of simple composition and of good story-telling in rhyme and metre; here is "Monsieur Tonson Come Again"; here is "Bad Company"—the story of the magpie and Tom More; here is "John Gilpin"; here is Mrs. Thrale's "The Three Warnings," and Southey's "The Well of St. Keyne," and that extraordinary piece of George Colman's, "The Elder Brother," which one finds also in Colman's 'Broad Grins.' These four volumes would be a very cyclopædia of old-fashioned fun, but that there is no index nor contents whereby to find anything at need.

The forty colored etchings by George Cruikshank are of his early prime, coming just after the savage political caricatures, the assaults on King George IV. and those equally unmeasured on Queen Caroline, and just before the famous 'Points of Humour.' The plates, on being compared with a good original set, certainly lose a good deal; they are inferior in line, as if reproduced by photographic process, and the coloring is less vigorous—much paler and less forcible—as, indeed, might have been expected. Good colorers by hand of book-illustrations are not common nowadays. But an original copy of the book is a costly rarity now, and these are good Cruikshank pictures after all.

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Annals of My Early Life, 1806-1846. With Occasional Compositions in Latin and English verse. By Charles Wordsworth, D.D., D.C.L., Bishop of St. Andrew's and Fellow of Winchester College. Longmans, Green & Co. 1891.

CHARLES WORDSWORTH is a nephew of the poet, a son of Christopher, the famous Master of Trinity, a younger brother of Christopher, the eloquent Bishop of Lincoln, and an uncle of the present Bishop of Salisbury. Born in 1806, he still lives, and contemplates a volume of later 'Annals' at no distant day. He had been wiser if he had put all he had to say into one volume, and it need have been no bigger than this, from which a great many letters of congratulation and approval sent to him on his preferments and discourses and Greek Grammar might safely have been omitted, together with all the Greek and Latin poetry. This, however, reveals the man as does no other part, an admirable scholar and by clearest right one of the New Testament Company for the Revision of the Authorized Version; but, as unmistakably, a pedant of such inordinate vanity as the modern world seldom has furnished it for its amused compassion. The Harrow Prize Poem in Latin and the Oxford Prize Poem in Greek are given in full, as, also, is the Latin Prize Essay. But the printing of these back numbers is pure self-effacement in comparison with the four pages of notes on the Prize Essay, which range through the whole length and breadth of classic literature, but are of no imaginable use to any living soul.

His religious character is frankly revealed at the outset when he relates that he was not baptized till six months after his birth, and confesses that "it has always been a cause of some uneasiness." A custom of baptism before birth at one time acquired some prevalence, and Bishop Wordsworth may approve of that. He was educated at Harrow and Christ Church, Oxford, and at either place distinguished himself as much in athletics as in study, and has set down his victories with as much care and pride in the one thing as in the other. In fact,

> "He nothing common did, or mean,
> Upon that memorable scene,"

in his own estimation, looking backward on it from the summit of his years. We have such entries as "Walked with Twistleton," "Wine with Popham," "Breakfast with Phillimore." There is something very naïve in his self-approval for never having given supper parties or had cards in his own rooms, though he accepted invitations to supper and cards from other men. An amusing circumstance is his trouble with a chimney that had smoked 300 years. He went to Dr. Pusey and requested his opinion on the passage in Psalm cxix. 93, "I am become like a bottle in the smoke," but got no help from him. Of Tennyson's prize poem of 1829, "Timbuctoo," he wrote to his brother who was at Cambridge, "If such an exercise had been sent up at Oxford, the author would have had a better chance of being rusticated—with a view of his passing a few months in a lunatic asylum—than of obtaining the prize."

The most interesting pages are those giving an account of his Oxford pupils in 1830; and it is a fact very honorable to him that a group of such remarkable men came to him for tuition. They were James R. Hope (who became Mr. Hope-Scott by marriage with Sir Walter's grandchild, Lockhart's daughter), a Parliamentary lawyer of very great abilities, who turned Romanist (it is said) from studying the subject of Papal aggression; Cardinal Manning, whom Wordsworth had known from childhood and has still for a friend; W. K. Hamilton, the future Bishop of Salisbury; Sir Francis Doyle, afterwards Professor of Poetry at Oxford; Sir Thomas Acland, Lord Lincoln, Charles J. Canning, who afterwards as Viscount Canning was Governor-General of India, and last, and yet first, William E. Gladstone, of whom the Bishop gives some interesting recollections. He was confident in 1830 that Gladstone would some day be Prime Minister, but he little thought it would be as a Liberal, as then he was the stiffest of "those stern and unbending Tories" of whom he very soon became "the rising hope." Several of Gladstone's letters are given, which foreshadow the versatility of the historic man; and one of them, relating how he failed to get the Ireland Scholarship, is more humorous than we imagined him ever to have been.

From Oxford he went to Winchester as second master in 1834, and while he claims for himself certain measures of reform anticipating Arnold's at Rugby on similar lines, his "Reform in Greek Grammar" is the principal ground on which he bases his confidence of the approval of mankind. It would seem to have met with heartiest appreciation. The young man's eye to the main chance was very keen. He made it a rule to get acquainted with as many distinguished persons, or persons likely to be distinguished, as possible; consequently there was a tremendous rally in his favor when he sought the Winchester vacancy, and he gives a formidable list of the men who wrote him letters of recommendation and the offices which they have filled. Like every English ecclesiastical biography, the book reeks with the scent of place-hunting and patronage. The reforms that have made the English civil service so much better than ours have left the abuses of the Church to keep in countenance those of our politics. A postscript on the Oxford movement adds little to what we already knew, but there is a characteristic and delicious passage in which the author relates his efforts to soothe Newman's distress of mind when, after the Tract 90 business, he was wavering in his attachment to the Church of England. Wordsworth wrote him feelingly, "at the same time offering to send him a copy of Wetstein's Greek Testament (2 vols., folio, bound in Russia by Kalthoeber), one of the handsomest books I had in my library." Newman accepted the gift, but, if it soothed his feelings, it was only for a little time.

The Soft Porcelain of Sèvres, with an Historical Introduction by Édouard Garnier. London: John C. Nimmo. 1891. Folio, 32 pages of text and 50 plates in colors.

THIS is one of those books which furnish their reviewers with the materials of their own criticism, and thereby give cause to the profane to scoff at all reviewing. The whole story of the attempts at imitating in Europe Oriental porcelain, the consequent invention of different "soft" porcelains, and the final happening on the material needed for "hard" porcelain, is told in these pages (1-17), not at very great length, but sufficiently. Then follows, in chapter iv., an account of the composition of the soft porcelain of Sèvres and the peculiarities of the decoration of the early pieces of this ware. Chapter v. contains a list of the chronological marks of the porcelain from 1753 to 1792, and also the private marks of the painters, with their names and mention of the kind of work done by each. And so the too brief text terminates; for there is no attempt at a serious history of the manufacture, no quoting, and but little citation of documents, and no greater fulness of treatment in this monograph than might be looked for in a general history of porcelain, or even in a general history of ceramics. The obvious advantage which this treatise has over others is in its being the latest. Every year increases our clearness of vision, in these archæological matters, and every fresh writer who takes his work seriously is able to reach a more intelligible and useful result. In this connection we may note a correction which the author makes in the tables of date-marks: J., which corresponds to 1762, he says, must be inserted, thus changing all the dates that follow.

We are not told who has translated Mr. Garnier's French text, but it has been well rendered into English. There is also one really important service done the student: the French terms of the trade, *caillouté*, *à culots*, *mignonette shape*, are explained, either by full definition in words or by reference to the pictured form. Some terms of obvious meaning so far as the mere words go, such as *carrée*, *en éventail*, etc., need explanation still in their use as describing pieces of porcelain, and these also are made clear in this book by the pictures which illustrate them. Nor is this a light matter; no French dictionary, glossary, or special work on decorative art exists, it is safe to say, in which these terms are regularly defined; their meaning is to be got at only by long study and comparison. It is also a pleasure to find the distinction made clear, in print which all may read, between the burnishing *au clou* of the gilding of earlier pieces and the agate burnishing of the later ones.

As to the fifty plates and the 500 pictures of rare old porcelain which they contain, it is very hard to speak with confidence, because we like them very much as to their general effect, while they are not delicate nor beautiful on closer examination. They are printed in full color and gold on a very glossy paper, and the effect produced is very like the real porcelain. Perhaps they could hardly be better in this way; but there is an ugly outlining in a purplish-brown ink which shows too much in places, and frequent slips in the registering of the different printings, which in some cases is very noticeable indeed. The plates are, consequently, not very delicate, however fine and rich they appear. They do, however, give a good idea of the look of the ware; and the splendid vases of the Jones collection at South Kensington and those of the Double collection being well portrayed, we must infer the same of the priceless pieces of the Rothschild and Buckingham Palace collections, which are less well known.

England and the English in the Eighteenth Century. By Wm. Connor Sydney. 2 vols., pp. 361, 407. Macmillan & Co. 1891.

IN one of the Bampton lectures delivered at Oxford in 1871, Canon Curteis made the following comprehensive charge against the eighteenth century:

"There is probably no one now living who does not congratulate himself that his lot was not cast in the eighteenth century. It has become by general consent an object for ridicule and sarcasm. Its very dress and airs had something about them which irresistibly moves a smile. Its literature—with some noble exceptions—stands neglected upon our shelves. Its poetry has lost all power to enkindle us; its science is exploded, its taste condemned."

This view of the eighteenth century commends itself to Mr. Sydney, and he has col-

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lected a mass of information, from various authorities on the period, all of which tends to strengthen and confirm the position taken by the Bampton lecturer. There is, of course, another side to this, as to most other questions; but of the other side Mr. Sydney takes no account. The evidence he has gathered together is decidedly interesting, and, although its arrangement is open to improvement, the general result is a readable and valuable contribution to the literature of the subject.

If a large measure of importance is attached to the comforts and conveniences of life, it is not difficult to make out a strong case against the eighteenth century. From this point of view the "good old times" were certainly very bad times. Gangs of robbers infested the streets of London and all the main roads leading into the city, and the watchmen of the period were utterly unable to cope with these ruffians or to protect the lives and property of the inhabitants. The streets were unpaved, and were almost impassable in bad weather, so that for long periods there was no communication between Kensington and Westminster; while in the country roads the ruts were four feet deep even in summer. There were no sidewalks, so that foot passengers were liable to be covered with mud or run over by every passing vehicle, and this was particularly true of those who were compelled by force to "give" the wall instead of "taking" it. Even as late as 1797, there was only one umbrella in the town of Cambridge, and this precious article was kept at a certain shop and let out by the hour. The fashions, in dress and other matters, seem very absurd to us, as ours will probably seem to our descendants. Horace Walpole declares that the beaux used to carry two watches, one to tell what the time *was* and the other what it was *not*. Ladies were obliged to sit on stools in coaches, being unable to occupy the usual seats on account of the height of their head-dresses. As to their gowns, Goldsmith says: "A lady's train is not bought but at some expense, and after it has swept the public walks for a few evenings, is fit to be worn no longer." Men's hats were very expensive, so much so that when Dean Swift made his will, he solemnly left his best beaver hat to one friend and his second best to another. Rogers used to tell how he had seen Haydn playing at a concert in a tie wig, with a sword buckled at his side; and still stranger must Garrick have appeared acting *Othello* in a regimental suit of George II.'s body-guard, with a flowing Ramillies wig. Mrs. Yates played *Lady Macbeth* in a hoop eight yards in circumference, while another lady's conception of *Cleopatra* included a hooped petticoat, a stomacher, and a powdered commode.

The standard of learning was no doubt lower than it now is, especially among the fair sex, and at the universities this difference was very marked. When Lord Eldon was examined in Hebrew and history for his degree at Oxford in 1770, he was asked only two questions: "What is the Hebrew for the place of a skull?" and "Who founded University College?" and having given satisfactory answers, he was told that he was competent in both subjects! Comparisons of the moral condition of a nation at different periods in its history are apt to be misleading, but without going so far as Lady M. W. Montagu, who wrote that certain statesmen were preparing a bill "for the purpose of excising the word 'not' from the decalogue and inserting it in every clause in the creed," it may be admitted that England in the eighteenth century was quite as immoral as France. Gambling, duelling, and drunkenness were the fashionable follies of the age, and it was such men as Pitt and Sheridan that made these follies fashionable. Perjury was a regular occupation, and its professors walked about Westminster Hall with straws in their shoes to denote their calling. Political morality was at a very low ebb. Bribery was universal. Horace Walpole said that England was absolutely controlled by some two hundred noblemen, who received more from the Government than they paid to it; and Southey wrote: "In order that the fidelity of political supporters might be secured, every office in the State, from the Prime Minister down to the humblest fellow in the Post-office or the Custom-house, was conferred." Truly a lamentable state of things, but not without a close parallel in this glorious nineteenth century of ours. Commissions in the army were bestowed on children and even on young ladies of favored families, and the brutalities practised by press-gangs in recruiting for the navy are not pleasant reading. The country clergymen were no doubt lacking in religious zeal, and many of them were more interested in the pursuit of foxes than in the cure of souls. Arthur Young quotes the following advertisement from a newspaper of the period: "Wanted, a curacy in a good sporting country where the duty is light and the neighborhood convivial." The few really learned divines preached over the heads of their audiences, and gave Wesley and Whitefield an advantage in reaching the hearts of the masses similar to that claimed for the Salvation Army preachers of to-day. In the words of Phillimore: "The profound speculations and subtle logic of Clarke and Butler were not intended for the colliers down whose blackened cheeks the tears furrowed channels as they listened for the first time to Wesley."

Of all these things, and of many more, Mr. Sydney discourses at length, and the picture he draws of England in the last century is certainly not an attractive one. So far as his evidence goes, it makes for Canon Curteis, but it is only necessary to consider the really great movements of the century in scientific and political thought, and the great men whose names are associated with them, in order to reach a more accurate and a fairer conclusion.

We note very few errors. The attempt of the young Pretender took place thirty years, not twenty-five, after that of the Chevalier St. George. Milton did *not* write:

"To-morrow to fresh *fields* and pastures new,"

although the line is generally so misquoted, nor did Johnson write:

"Toil, envy, want, the *garret* and the jail."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bacon, Rev. B. W. The Genesis of Genesis. Hartford: The *Student* Publishing Co. $2.50.
Bird, Isabella L. Journeys in Persia and Kurdistan. 2 vols. London: John Murray; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. $6.50.
Chaplin, Stewart. Suspension of the Power of Alienation, etc. Baker, Voorhis & Co. $4.50.
Donelson, Katharine. Rodger Latimer's Mistake. Chicago: Laird & Lee. $1.
Eardley-Wilmot, Capt. S. The Development of Navies during the last Half-Century. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.75.
Fife-Cookson, Lieut.-Col. A Dream of Other Days; a Romantic Poem. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Fullerton, W. M. In Cairo. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Hall, Rev. C. C. Into His Marvellous Light. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Harrison, Frederic. The New Calendar of Great Men. Macmillan & Co. $2.25.
Haven, Rev. T. W. Natural Religion. *Twentieth Century* Publishing Co. $1.
Holmes, O. W. Medical Essays, 1842—1882. Our Hundred Days in Europe. [Riverside Edition. Vols. IX. and X.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Howland, O. A. The New Empire. Baker & Taylor Co. $2.50.
Jackman, W. S. Nature Study for the Common Schools. Henry Holt & Co. $1.20.
Kennedy, Patrick. Legendary Fictions of the Irish Celts. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Kenyon, J. B. At the Gate of Dreams. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Lang, A. Selected Poems of Robert Burns. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.: New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.
Lee, Katherine. Love or Money. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXIX. Inglis—John. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Lethaby, W. R. Architecture, Mysticism and Myth. London: Percival & Co.
Lewis, Mrs. Harriet. The Two Husbands; or, Buried Secrets. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
Long, W. E. Euripides's Cyclops. Part I—Introduction and Text. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Lowe, R. W. Churchill's Rosciad and the Apology. London: Lawrence & Bullen.
Maurice, Rev. F. D. Sermons Preached in Lincoln's Inn Chapel. Vol. III. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
McClelland, W. J. A Treatise on the Geometry of the Circle. Macmillan & Co.
McMaster, J. B. History of the People of the United States. Vol. 3. D. Appleton & Co. $2.50.
Merry, Rev. W. W. Selected Fragments of Roman Poetry. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Miller, Annie J. Physical Beauty: How to Obtain it and How to Preserve it. Charles L. Webster & Co.
Moore, Thomas. Lalla Rookh. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Morley, Margaret W. A Song of Life. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Mr. Sponge's Sporting Tour. London: Bradbury, Agnew & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.25.
Norman, Henry. The Real Japan. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.
Norton, C. L. A Handbook of Florida. 3d ed., revised. Longmans, Green & Co.
Ohm, G. S. The Galvanic Circuit Investigated Mathematically. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Palmer, A. H. The Life and Letters of Samuel Palmer, Painter and Etcher. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $7.50.
Paton, W. R., and Hicks, E. L. The Inscriptions of Cos. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Peacock, T. L. Nightmare Abbey. London: J. M. Dent & Co.: New York: Macmillan. $1.
Peard, Frances M. The Baroness: A Dutch Story. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Ramsay, Prof. G. G. Latin Prose Composition. 3d ed. Vol. I. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.10.
Richardson, A. T. Progressive Mathematical Exercises for Home Work. Macmillan & Co. 60 cents.
Ropes, A. H. Lady Mary Wortley Montagu: Select Passages from her Letters. Charles Scribner's Sons. $2.50.
Ruskin, J. The Queen of the Air. [Brantwood Edition.] Charles E. Merrill & Co. $1.50.
Russell, W. C. Mrs. Dines's Jewels: a Mid-Atlantic Romance. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Saintsbury, G. Political Verse. Macmillan & Co. $1.
Sand, George. La Famille de Germandre. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Savage-Armstrong, G. F. One in the Infinite. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Scott, Alexander. An Introduction to Chemical Theory. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $1.25.

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